
SIXTH ANNUAL
CONVENTION OF THE
ASSOCIATION
OF HISTORY
TEACHERS
OF THE MIDDLE
STATES AND
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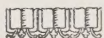
HELD IN
BALTIMORE
MARCH
THIRTEENTH
AND FOUR-
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NINETEEN
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OFFICERS AND COUNCIL, 1908-1909

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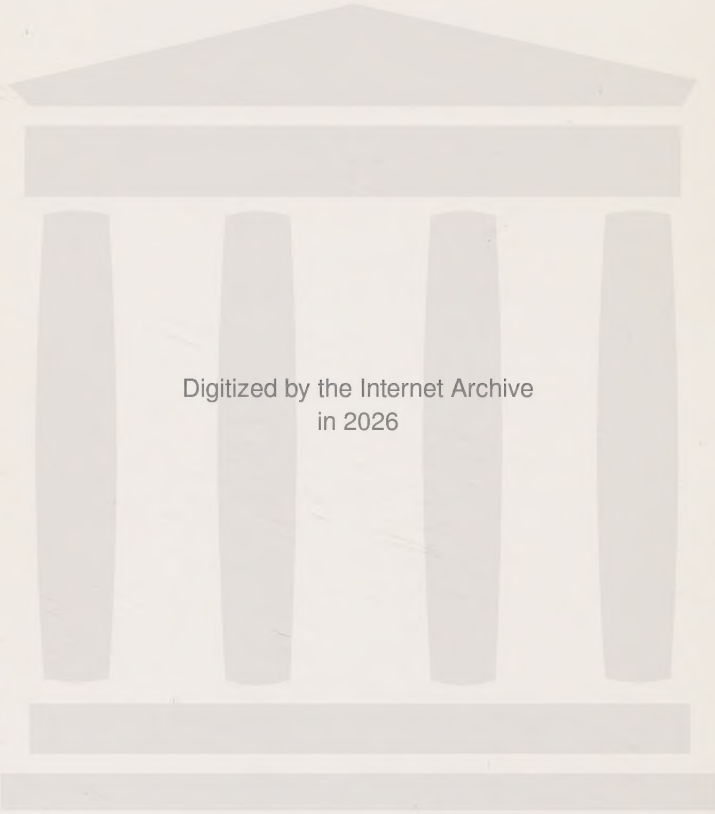
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SYNOPSIS OF PROCEEDINGS

FRIDAY AFTERNOON

At the opening session President Herrick reviewed briefly the growth of interest in the teaching of history in secondary schools. He called special attention to the Committee of Five appointed at the last meeting of the American Historical Association "to examine the *Report* of the Committee of Seven and suggest modifications, if any should seem desirable." A similar line of work had, he said, been planned for the afternoon session.

Topic: "Possible Modifications of the Secondary School Courses in Ancient, Mediæval, and Modern History."

- (1) "A proposal to shorten the course in Ancient History, with suggestions as to how this may be done."

*Livingston Rowe Schuyler, College of the City of New York.

- (2) "A plea for greater stress upon the modern period."

Charles A. Beard, Columbia University.

- (3) "A suggestion for the teaching of English History in connection with Mediæval and Modern History, instead of devoting an entire year to England as a separate subject."

Robert Maurer, Central High School, Washington.

Discussion: James Sullivan, Boys' High School, Brooklyn.

Paul Van Dyke, Princeton University.

Charles M. Andrews, Johns Hopkins University.

J. Montgomery Gambrill, Baltimore Polytechnic Institute.

J. M. Vincent, Johns Hopkins University.

Percy L. Kaye, City College, Baltimore.

Louise H. Haeseler, High School for Girls, Philadelphia.

*Professor Schuyler was unavoidably absent and the subject assigned to him was not considered.

FRIDAY EVENING

Address: "History and Geography." The Right Honorable James Bryce. Mr. Bryce was introduced by Mayor Mahool of Baltimore.

Reception tendered to ladies of the Association by members of the local History Teachers' Association.

Informal gathering at the Johns Hopkins Club.

SATURDAY MORNING

Topic: "The Correlation of History With Other Subjects in the Curriculum."

Sarah C. Brooks, Teachers' Training School, Baltimore.

- (a) "Correlation of history and geography."

Edward Bennett Mathews, Johns Hopkins University.

- (b) "Correlation of history and English."

Carlton F. Brown, Bryn Mawr College.

- (c) "Correlation of history and economics."

Henry R. Burch, Central Manual Training School, Philadelphia.

- (d) "Correlation of history and classics."

Samuel E. Berger, Central High School, Philadelphia.

Business Meeting: Reports and election of officers.

1:00 P. M. Luncheon in Goucher Hall, on invitation of President Goucher.

At the business meeting appropriate resolutions were adopted extending the thanks of the Association to the Right Honorable James Bryce and to the people of Baltimore.

The names of the officers and council elected for 1908-09 are printed above on page 3.

PROCEEDINGS OF THE COUNCIL

At the meeting of the council, Philadelphia was selected as the place for the next convention of the Association. The dates (fixed by the Constitution) will be March 12th and 13th, 1909.

HISTORY AND GEOGRAPHY

*SOME NOTES FROM THE ADDRESS OF THE

RIGHT HONORABLE JAMES BRYCE

The relation between history and geography was almost an untrodden field thirty or forty years ago; now it is difficult to find anything new to say. The relation consists in this: Man is an intelligent being placed in the midst of nature to do his best. Geography describes his environment, history traces his development.

Man is affected by nature in an infinite variety of ways. He is affected by climate, surface, soil, by animals, whether beasts of prey or useful animals, by plants and the facility with which he can make them yield food or material for construction. Some interesting illustrations may be found in E. J. Payne's remarks on Mexico in his *History of the New World Called America*. Man in his early stages is afraid of nature. As he learns her ways he is able to adapt himself to her. Originally she is his mistress. In the end she becomes his docile servant. She proffers him with ungrudging hand things of which he never dreamed in his early days. Coal and iron have recently become the basis of our modern civilization. In the last thirty or forty years we have discovered new ways of applying the power in falling water. In early times it simply ran our mills; now it generates the electric current, which is aiding in the development of vast resources. These are obvious considerations.

One of the most interesting and curious things which we have to discover is the origin of the races of mankind. We find a great variety of races scattered over the earth, a variety formerly greater; for weak races die out. There are probably only one-fifth or one-fourth as many languages now spoken as three thousand years ago.

*Information that arrangements for a stenographer to report this address for the Association had failed at the last moment did not reach the secretary until after the meeting. The notes here offered are therefore very imperfect.

The conclusion of the descent of man from one stock is generally supported by scientific men. It is probable that there was one type originally which became differentiated. If that be so, how account for the striking differences in present types? This is one of the most interesting of problems for solution. The principal factor in differentiating races must have been the influence of nature in climate and soil. But with differences once established other causes came into action. Temperate climates have been usually deemed more conducive to progress than tropical climates. But climate is only a partial explanation. Races as different as Celts, Teutons and Slavs are found in the North Temperate Zone. We cannot then assign physical causes to account for such differences as exist among these peoples. Intermingling and crossing may have produced the differences which we now see. Difference of language does not necessarily indicate difference of race.

The origin of existing races lies far behind recorded history. But by observation of existing races and of differences made by physical causes and crossing, we may reason back. The effect of the mingling of races is a problem that has never been properly discussed. Suppose a well-defined type, well civilized, with established ideas, institutions, literature, habits; suppose there enter new elements of population differing in most aspects of their civilization; will the type after two or three generations of blending be substantially the same or different? It is a very interesting question, for this is pretty much what is happening in the United States now. You have a type as distinct as any in the world. You are taking among you people who are strangers to your ideas, habits, literature and, largely, religion. It may be that the settlers will grow up to be Americans. They will doubtless be proud of their country. But how far will the people of the future be different? Nobody knows. There has been no other problem in history like it. The nearest approach to a parallel was furnished by the barbarian incursions into Roman territory. But Roman institutions broke down under the strain.

Sometimes a group of people become isolated. Here is a problem of another sort. It is by intercourse of people with people that progress has come. There are instances in which a sort of

reversion has followed isolation. I am told that this is happening in certain isles of the West Indies, and in a different form in parts of the mountainous regions of West Virginia, Kentucky and Tennessee.

Still another problem is presented by the changes that have been going on in the rural parts of New England. Large portions of the earlier population having gone West, their places have been filled by Canadian French, Italians, Irish and Portuguese. The physical cause is quite obvious—richer soil in the West. The movement may end in making the New England type entirely different. There is need of statistics to make the situation clear. The change is one that could not have happened without coal and iron, which by making railroads possible, made migration on a large scale possible.

Changes in the character of a race are partly due to climate. Agricultural people are not the same as manufacturing people. If nature induces a change from one to the other, the people may also change. Different natural conditions have tended to alter the English type on this continent. Japan has lately come into contact with American and European civilization. It is hardly possible to suppose that Japan will not change in consequence. How this may happen will be an interesting study. Other similar problems are suggested by the case of the Chinese, of the French Canadians and of the Dutch in South Africa.

In the power of man to modify nature we have another set of problems. What will be the result of the changes in nature which man is bringing to pass? Take the building of roads across deserts. Formerly deserts separated peoples more than the sea. Now we have learned how to cross them. The first and most remarkable instance of the kind was your building of a railroad across to California. It was apparently the intention of nature that California, Oregon and Washington should remain a distinct country with a distinct nation. How was this overcome? By coal and iron. The Central and Union Pacific constituted the first decisive step. This no one could have dreamt in 1776. The time will come when the deserts of Central Asia will be crossed by railroads. It is possible that even Sahara may be crossed. There has been talk of it. A

remarkable enterprise is the Turkish railroad now being built to Mecca, primarily for pilgrims and political control.

Irrigation works on a small scale are very old; on the large scale, now familiar, they are new. By means of them man is producing remarkable changes in the western parts of America. But there is another way in which water can be made useful that has become known only in recent years, and that is in generating electric currents. Norway, for example, is a country of great, bare mountain plateaus, but with heavy rainfall. It has as much water power as all the rest of Europe put together. The factories of Europe might be supplied with power by the waterfalls of Norway. I do not wish to be considered, however, as thinking only of cheap power. If a country had a beautiful waterfall, unsurpassed by any other in the world, should we consider the country wise that sacrificed it for the purpose of securing cheap power, considering that power can be secured in other ways?

Man is making islands mainland. The tunnel under the Hudson is an instance. Works of this character have been considered for the English Channel, the Irish Channel and the Bosphorus. It is only a matter of cost. From Calais to Pekin without change of cars is a possibility. Another field of activity is that concerned with the uniting of oceans and the reorganization of Continents. What are the social and economic results of works like the Suez Canal? Some say the Canal has not been a commercial advantage to England because she is less than formerly a distributing center. The Panama Canal will be a still more remarkable case and furnishes much material for curious speculation. Other instances of man's power to modify nature are the change of sea into land, and land into sea. The Dutch Zuyder Zee has been drained in the last forty years. The largest experiment in sight at present is the Sea of Aral, which is supplied by two great rivers that could be diverted. The conversion of land into sea has never been attempted. It was believed once that much of the desert of Sahara lay below the level of the Atlantic, and an ingenious Frenchman at a time when England and France were not so friendly as they are now, suggested turning in the Atlantic by a canal. The Frenchman reasoned that by making the Sahara an arm of the sea the climate of Europe would be changed

so the British Isles would literally be frozen out. More careful surveys have now shown that only a very small part of the Sahara is below sea level.

I have suggested these reflections to show how to get children to think about geographical facts. Above all, let your teaching derive actuality from yourselves thinking about real life and the facts of today. The study of the past is most profitable when it is considered with reference to the present.

A PLEA FOR GREATER STRESS UPON THE MODERN PERIOD

CHARLES A. BEARD

COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY, NEW YORK

The notion that History can be resolved into its elements after the fashion of Arithmetic is, to my way of thinking, fundamentally false, and positively pernicious in so far as it lulls teachers and pupils into a complacent security after the mastery of "leading dates and facts." Equally erroneous is the view that a sound historical instruction requires the partition of all history into four rectangular domains, each with its mathematically calculated subdivisions, and then the skilled manoeuvring of the students through the completed system.

These two doctrines have come from the exigencies of pedagogy; they have not risen spontaneously from the experience of those earnestly and permanently engaged in sounding here and there the deeper problems which the ancient and honorable discipline of History affords.

Written history, like every other intellectual product, has itself a long history; from generation to generation it takes a new form and content, as the interests and intellectual preoccupations of mankind change; and wherever it has not fallen to the level of a bald narrative, it has served "the instant need of things." Early histories were often chronicles of the heroic deeds of royal ancestors, told for the edification and satisfaction of kings by court bards. When Christianity came into Northern Heathendom the writers of history mingled with the battles of the kings, still more mighty battles with the hosts of sin and darkness, and with the deeds of princes, those of saints. On this original stock nourished in unphilosophical days was grafted every kind of later history. After the great Protestant Revolt, histories were written to justify the ways of the contending

religious parties; and when the still more revolutionary constitutional insurrection came throughout Europe, the interests of men shifted to politics and we are today living principally under the sway of political history, because the last three centuries have been intensely political in their nature. In other words, for three centuries, mankind in the western world has been steadily struggling for the attainment of popular government, and, as the hand is subdued to the dye in which it works, so the minds of thinkers are disciplined by the spirit of their age. History always has served the interests of men and illuminated their problems and it is the task of each generation of historical teachers to emancipate themselves from the inherited routine and readjust themselves to their own problems. The sound doctrine of historical continuity does not imply intellectual bondage.

Frankly admitting that I hold an entirely utilitarian view of history writing and instruction, I shall come directly to my argument in favor of a readjustment of our program in such a way as to place more emphasis on the recent period. The great problems of our time are not the relations of church and state or the fashioning of representative institutions, though I should be the last to contend that we have reached perfection in these directions. Our problems are primarily social and economic; they concern the functions of political institutions rather than their form; and they are to be met out of the fulness of concrete experience which history records, not by reference to abstract doctrines set up *in vacuo*. It is now the instant business of history to bring the students into touch with these questions not by entering upon their controversial aspects, but by leading up to them along the paths of historical fact. The history which does not emerge into the living present is, therefore, sterile, when viewed from the standpoint of public need, however diverting it may be as a subject of interested speculation on the part of private persons. This does not imply any disrespect for the ancients, but it emulates their example, for the thinkers who made Greece famous were not primarily or even casually interested in the remote past of Egypt or Babylon.

Even for those who recoil at the thought of making history primarily a servant of the times, there is some consolation, because

it ought to be likewise the design of modern history to engage the attention of the student in the things which are interesting the world simply for the purpose of widening his horizon and extending the field for the play of the intellect—a wholly legitimate thing even where no results beyond personal pleasure are contemplated. To find in the news of the morning paper materials which start in train a long line of historical reflections is itself a source of comfort which helps to carry the individual out of his narrow sphere into the forum and market place of the world, where great and permanent additions are daily being made to the cultural equipment of all mankind. This quickens the sympathies, stimulates the mind, adds to the man.

This emphasis on recent history will of course incur the objection that current events are so colored by misleading reports that no sound instruction can be based upon our knowledge of them. I will not reply to such an objection by citing the volumes of errors about historical questions ranging from the composition of the *gens* at Rome to the Anglo-Saxon shiremoet which have passed current among instructors in times past and have been taught with calm assurance and dogmatic precision. I will rather meet this contention by calling attention to the fact that in the statute books, the debates in legislative bodies, the collection of treaties and public papers, the programs of political parties, the statistics of commerce and industry, and a thousand other places we have authentic sources of information upon which a solid body of truth worthy of the name of history can be built. I am ready to admit that these materials are not so organized at this moment as to be made available to the teacher of history, but this is due to the neglect of “professed” historians, and is a fault which can and should be speedily remedied.

I believe the time has now come for laying decided stress on the great and fundamental achievements of the last two centuries with special reference to those which have specially contributed to the making of the world about us. I do not think any particular date can be fixed for the beginning of this type of history, for some things, such as the invention of the locomotive, fall completely within the period, while others, such as the beginnings of European expansion, extend into the fifteenth century at least. My notion of this new form of historical instruction is that it should be topical

rather than chronological. It should show us how the ancient monarchies of western Europe have been transformed into popular governments of one kind or another; how European nations have been partitioning the earth and carrying their trade and ideas to the four corners of the globe; how the whole system of working, living, traveling, and thinking has been revolutionized by the great inventions; how science has come to the aid of man in a thousand practical ways; and what great problems occupy the attention of thinkers and statesmen today. I believe that this can be done in a scientific spirit and an interesting fashion; that it will enhance the study of history in the view of the public; and that it will render high service to the democracy in which we live. History enters upon its world period as our nation enters upon its world policy.

There is one other emancipation that I desire for historical instruction, that is, emancipation from the bondage to college entrance requirements. Our public schools are not primarily created for those who are fortunate enough to enter college, but they are designed to aid in the subtle process of making citizens. Highly desirable as it may be to encourage the advance of students from the high school to the college, it remains a fact that the vast majority of secondary pupils pass out into the responsibilities of life on the completion of their work.

I am not prepared to say that we are ready just now for this radical readjustment of our historical perspective so far as the actual instruction is concerned. Moreover it is not a part of the obligation laid upon me in the assignment of this subject to sketch a practical program. It will take some heroic treatment of the curriculum to make room for such a plan of modern history instruction as I suggest, and it is one of the vices of the American educational system that we have intelligence enough to add new things without having the courage to cut out the old. My hope is to awaken the spirit, in the firm belief that the flesh will become strong.

A SUGGESTION FOR THE TEACHING OF ENGLISH HISTORY IN CONNECTION WITH MEDIÆVAL AND MODERN HISTORY, INSTEAD OF DEVOTING AN ENTIRE YEAR TO ENGLAND AS A SEPARATE SUBJECT

ROBERT MAURER

CENTRAL HIGH SCHOOL, WASHINGTON

Historians have recommended for the first year of a high school course ancient history, which shall be carried through to the time of Charlemagne. Teachers in secondary schools often find it most difficult to cover the subject in the time allowed to it. So also a one-year mediæval and modern European course is advised, and teachers hurry along to complete the schedule. Comprehensive text books are adopted which cannot feasibly be cut down, and which must be gone over within set time limits. Pupils in preparation for classes train their minds to hold in solution, as it were, large masses of facts, being incapable within the time allowed of forcing their thoughts to crystallize into real knowledge. Among the influences which bring about this result the most potent is the attempt of the teacher to cover too wide a scope of text book subject matter in too short a time. I believe that the practical experience of most teachers bears out the assertion that any attempt to include ancient, mediæval, modern and English history courses, as such, in three years leads inevitably to that overcrowding for time's sake which prevents deliberation in teaching and results in looseness of understanding and memory for the pupil.

In the Washington, D. C., high schools the following course was tried: First year, ancient history to 800 A.D.; second year, English history for one semester; third year, mediæval and modern European history; fourth year, American history. The attempt to use an advanced text book in English history in one semester proved

disastrous to good instruction. By a re-arrangement of the course, the English history might have been extended to cover a whole year, but teachers with one voice also declared the one-year mediæval and modern history course unsatisfactory. A résumé of the period from 500 to 800 A.D. was deemed advisable, and the field proved too comprehensive for that deliberation which alone makes historical study for high school pupils a mental stimulus and developer. The pupils had to be crowded unwisely. The conclusion seemed inevitable that if a thorough, suggestive and thoughtful text book was to be used, more time must be given to it. It was therefore decided to eliminate English history as a separate course, and to try a two-year one-book European history course for the second and third years.

Valid criticisms of such a proposition promptly suggest themselves. The adoption of more elementary text books might be suggested. But in opposition to that stands the natural desire of teachers in advanced secondary schools to use only the best of books. Historical study should have some body and depth to it, qualities of a text which grow weaker as the book becomes more and more elementary.

To many the sacrifice of a distinct English history course seems almost sacrilegious, and unless there be due compensation for its omission, any four-year course must without it be condemned. If it can be shown that the omission of a separate English history course does not mean the abandonment of any substantial part of English history instruction, then we have a very large measure of compensation.

The widespread interest in and discussion of the question for many years must, ere this, have produced the ideal four-year course of history study, if there be one. Much study and experience have seemed to demonstrate the fact that there is no ideal solution of this problem. In defending a certain plan, I do not therefore maintain for it any absolute superiority over all others. If it prove so feasible that it appears to be the least objectionable, then it should be favorably considered.

The plan suggested is not a new one. It is this: Ancient history in the first year (the period from 500 to 800 to be surveyed only generally, if it appear that a study of the full scope of the period

results in overcrowding), mediæval history throughout the second year, modern history throughout the third year; one text book to be used for the second and third years.

This arrangement offers several advantages.

First, it is advisable that mediæval history begin with a résumé of the Romanic-Germanic period. It is probable that in many, if not in most, first year ancient history classes the period from 500 to 800 is not thoroughly taught. If the pupils are made to appreciate the continuity of history during those centuries and to know something of the survival of old institutions and the origin and establishment of the new, teachers feel that they have, as best they could, covered the ground. Under such circumstances, a continued course of mediæval history should naturally open with a review of those centuries. And even if careful study has been made down to 800, a re-survey of the three centuries before refreshes in the minds of high school pupils, who are so apt at forgetting, their knowledge of what of Roman and Grecian history it was that the Middle Ages started with.

Again, the use of one good text book for two years ought to commend itself. I return to the suggestion made before, that we need more deliberation in our history teaching. For historical instruction it is more true than for any other study in the curriculum, that too much time would scarcely be an evil. The field opened for discussion, for comparison, for suggestion along the lines of right-thinking is as wide as human experience. It is radically wrong to drive young and opening minds through mere pages of a text book day after day, without giving to those pages each day the meaning and suggestiveness which they contain. We have too much of the text book driving type of history teaching. I mean that the pupil is not generally given a chance to let his mind really open up along the lines of thought in the text, given a chance to really grasp an understanding that will be lasting. Give a teacher two years within which to cover the subject matter of a book and you relieve at once the feeling of pressure for time. Relieve this feeling and the teacher will take time for discussion, for comparison, for suggestion. A high school pupil cannot assimilate eight or ten pages of text book matter at each recitation, especially when the attempt is made to

supplement it with reference readings and source material. History becomes a confused mass of facts and ideas are swamped. Rather let a boy or girl deliberately think over and talk over in smaller measure the content of fact and of thought in the text. Give them a chance to thoroughly understand, and then only will they remember. A one-book two-year course gives them that opportunity.

And furthermore, with short text assignments the teacher will find it possible to weave into the text book matter a considerable amount of reference work, and topical work may be more freely assigned and more profitably handled. Experience with this one-book two-year course also seems to demonstrate the practicability of devoting a sufficient amount of time to those things in English history which (1) show the development of English institutions, (2) form a ground work for the study of English literature, (3) form a background for American history. Were it not possible to give careful study to these phases of English history, any course must fail of its proper ends. To prove that it is practicable to give such study to English history, mere generalizations are not effective. It seems necessary and proper to attempt to present some tangible evidence. In suggesting and defending a course of study which the Washington, D. C., high school history teachers recommended for adoption, and which was adopted, I can only lay out the ground work upon which they expect to upbuild English history study. In the Washington high schools Robinson's History of Western Europe happens to be the text in use. Any practical demonstration of the feasibility of this plan there can therefore be made only through that text. But what can be done with one text book is also suggestive of what may be done with any and all other text books of similar scope and purpose. An analysis of Robinson's text shows a total of 110 pages devoted strictly to English history. In addition thereto, 7 chapters of 106 pages, exclusive of the above 110, are as applicable in their subject matter to England as to any other European nation. With the history of England revealed in 216 pages of text, it is not fair to assume that the study of European history, as such, precludes the teaching of English history. Furthermore, Robinson's Readings on European History, many duplicate copies of which are in the library of each Washington high school for use with the text, and which

may also be used as supplemental to other text books, contains in the abridged edition 69 pages and in the two-volume series altogether 152 pages pertaining strictly to the history of England. An analysis of all this material by topics and by pages shows wherein this particular text is adequate in scope and wherein it has its limitations, making clear what is necessary, by way of further supplemental reference and topical work, to a well-rounded study of English history when taught as a part of this two-year one-book European history course. These supplemental topics, which will be numbered consecutively throughout, are selected to fill in where needed, having in mind the teaching primarily of the development of English institutions and the progress of the life and history of the English people, that the pupil may the better appreciate English literature and understand American history. This analysis must be very brief. I trust that interest and clearness will not be lost.

Robinson's text gives scant treatment (p. 60) to the opening chapters of English history—the Celtic and Roman periods. My first topics for additional study are: (1) the geography of Britain, (2) the Celtic civilization, (3) the character and weight of Roman influences.

For the Saxon period also the material at hand is rather scanty, except as to the religious phase of the history of the period. There is a summary of the Invasions on page 60, illustrated by a reference in the Readings, Volume 1, page 150, on the Saxon Pirates, together with a brief sketch of the Saxon Kingdoms, Wessex, Egbert and Alfred, including also the Danish Invasions (text, pp. 133-4), with a reference on Alfred and Learning in the Readings, Volume 1, pages 222 to 224. For a satisfactory study of this period, there must be added a topic (4) on the character and effect of the Teutonic Invasions, and for a better understanding of the social and political Saxon institutions topics on (5) Alfred and change in law and government, (6) rural and town life, (7) political organization—the Witan, shires, hundreds, (8) the administration of justice and, to introduce the Danes, another topic, (9) the Northmen—their early home, race, civilization and enterprises. For a history of Christianity in early England, including St. Augustine and the Conversion of England, and the Irish and the Roman churches, and for

the early culture pictured by Bede, there is a chapter on the Monks and Monastery life (pp. 56 to 64), supplemented by the Readings, Volume 1, pages 97 to 105, and Abridged 49 to 53.

The Norman Conquest of England, William I., his rule, English feudalism, Domesday, and the Church and State of his time, are discussed on pages 135-6-7-8 and 9. Added to this, in its general bearing on England, is the Chapter on Feudalism (fifteen pages), and in the Readings (Volume 1 and Abridged) are seven pages more. It is well to add further study (10) on Norman influences—the results of the Conquest. Passing over to the Reign of Henry II., his reforms, and Becket (pp. 140-1-2 and 3) again add further study of (11) his judicial reforms—jury trial, *curia regis*. Richard's time, spoken of on page 144, is in a way amplified by the Chapter on the Crusades (pp. 187 to 200), but more specific topical work on (12) Richard and England in the Crusades, is advisable. John and Magna Charta are fully treated in the text (pp. 144-5 and 6) and in the Readings (Volume 1, pp. 231 to 239—Abridged, pp. 115 to 118). Parliamentary growth, however, and the significance of 1265 and 1295 (discussed on page 147) cannot be passed over without more work on (13) de Montfort and the origin of the House of Commons.

Again on the subject of England and the Papacy in the 12th and 13th centuries, there is ample material in the chapters on the Mediæval Church (pp. 201 to 216) and on Heresy and the Friars (pp. 216 to 233), together with page 183.

To mediæval English life in town and country and to mediæval culture but slight specific consideration is given in the text, which discusses only mediæval English towns and charters (page 240) and the Anglo-Saxon language and literature (pp. 253 to 255). But here again do certain entire chapters contribute matter generally illuminative of English life—those on the People in Town and Country (16 pages) and on Culture in the Middle Ages (26 pages), the latter of which treats of science, literature, architecture and education. Further supplemental to these in the Readings are articles on the English manor and people (Volume 1, pages 399 to 406), mediæval English town customs, charters and guilds (Volume 1, pages 406 to 412), the Anglo-Saxon language (Volume 1, pp. 431

and 432), and Roger Bacon and science (Volume 1, pp. 460 and 461); almost all of which appear in the Abridged Readings also.

Proceeding now to England under the three Edwards, considerable attention is devoted in the text to Edward I., the Conquest of Wales, the History and Conquest of Scotland (pp. 277 to 280), to Parliamentary Growth (on pp. 147, 281 and 286), to the Hundred Years' War (pp. 281 to 287 and 292 to 295), to economic changes—the towns, villainage, the Black Death, labor and the Peasants' Revolt (288 to 291), and lastly to the Wars of the Roses (pp. 296-7 and 8). The Readings contribute to all of these only one reference from "Piers Plowman" (Volume 1, pp. 476-7). I would select two of these subjects for further special treatment—(14) Scotland—Wallace and Bruce, and (15) economic and social conditions.

Nor does the text neglect the 14th century history of England and the Papacy—King, Parliament, Clergy, Papacy and Wycliffe—to which pages 304, 308 and 309 are given over. The Readings (Volume 1, pp. 497 to 502) enlarge upon Wycliffe's attacks on Pope and clergy.

On the history of England under the Tudors there are about 20 pages in the text and about 25 of the Readings (Volume 2), as follows—the New Learning, Colet, More and Erasmus (text, p. 427; Readings, 2, 135-6), Henry VIII., Wolsey, the English Reformation, the English Church, and the Destruction of the Monasteries (text, 367, 425 to 433; Readings, Volume 1, 137 to 145); Edward VI., Catholicism and the Established Church (text, pp. 434-5; Readings, Vol. 2, pp. 146 to 148); Mary and the Catholic Reaction (text, p. 436; Readings, Volume 2, 149 to 152). For the England of Elizabeth we find material in the text on Protestantism, Mary Stuart, Philip II., Drake, the Armada, Ireland (pp. 458 to 464), and on literature (477-8). Some of these topics, together with that of the character of Elizabeth, are supplemented in Readings, Volume 1, pp. 186 to 193. As in the second volume, so in the Abridged Readings, there are many references covering the entire Tudor period. Ample as all this seems to be, there might well be additional supplemental work on (16), economic change, including enclosures, sheep farming, manufacturing centers and laborers, and for the reign of Elizabeth—(17) her foreign policy, (18) commercial and colonial enterprise, (19) social life, and (20) literature.

Proceeding now to the chapter on the struggle for constitutional government (pp. 475 to 494) this history of the Stuarts and of the Commonwealth is amply supplemented throughout in the Readings (Volume 2, 45 pages, and Abridged 20). In these pages due weight is given to James I. and the "Divine Right" in England, the Petition of Right, Charles I. and his policy and Parliament, taxation, the Puritans and Separatists, the Long Parliament and Civil War; the Commonwealth, the Navigation Acts, and the Lord Protector; the Restoration and Charles II., the Act of Uniformity and the Dissenters, England's struggle with Holland, James II., the Revolution and the Declaration of Right. For the rounding out of the study of this period, it is necessary for their bearing on American history to give additional time to these subjects—(21) trading companies and colonization, (22) Puritanism—its beliefs, customs and ideals, (23) the Puritan migration; and for a better understanding of constitutional development, (24) Parliamentary control and constitutional reforms in the time of Charles I., (25) Parties—"Whigs" and "Tories"—after the Restoration, (26) Habeas Corpus Act; and for an appreciation of the time, reflected in its literature, (27) European influences, Court extravagance and artificiality.

Passing now to 18th century history, we have a chapter in the text on the Expansion of England (pp. 523 to 535). The treatment of the reigns of William and Mary, and Charles I., is brief (523-4-5), and to supplement it I add (28) the subject of Party Government and the English Cabinet. England and the Balance of Power is discussed on page 526. The major portion of this chapter, however, is given over to a discussion of the foundation of England's commercial greatness (p. 523), her Colonial Empire (India and America), the Seven Years' War, the American Colonies and the Revolution (526 to 534). The Readings add to this subject matter 25 pages in Volume 2 and six pages in the Abridged. Except for the four subjects which should be added hereto (29) William Pitt in the Seven Years' War, (30) American and English ideas of representation, (31) Pitt, Burke and Fox and the Revolution, and (32) George III.—his character and influence, the study of the 18th century based upon this subject-matter would be reasonably comprehensive.

Upon the showing thus made down to the 19th century, the conclusion seems warranted that there can be set up, even without the supplemental topics, what is for the most part a very substantial framework of English history study. Much that is vitally important may under it be taught with real thoroughness. While time does not permit of a further summary of results the large scope of the material at hand cannot but be apparent. Thus far 32 additional topics have been suggested for further outside study, some merely in enlargement of the text, many for original work. A proper handling of these additional subjects during the major portion of two years' work cannot be a heavy burden to a teacher or to a class, because the one-book two-year course gives ample opportunity for just such supplemental reference and topical work.

A few words will show our resources and needs for the study of the 19th century. Unfortunately, the text which we happen to have used on which to base an investigation of the possibilities of this course does not satisfy the requirements for the period. Mention is made of Napoleon and England (p. 615), the industrial revolution, taking up the factory system, Watts, Adam Smith's "Wealth of Nations," communication and invention, free trade and labor, is discussed on pages 675 to 681, with a three-page reference in the Readings, and the Expansion of England in the 19th century is considered on page 685. For the end of the 18th century and the beginning of the 19th, special study might be made of (33) the influences of the French Revolution, (34) The Irish Revolution and Union, (35) England and neutral American trade in the Napoleonic period, and (36) the abolition of the slave trade. For the period 1820 to 1905, I merely offer the outline on the British Empire given in the New York State Educational Department Syllabus on History, covering the following general subjects: (37) Parliamentary Reform, (38) Present Government, (39) Taxation and Trade, (40) Industrial Progress, (41) Colonies and Colonial Policy, (42) Foreign Affairs, (43) Ireland, (44) Social Conditions, (45) Literature, (46) Abolition of slavery—any or all of which might be taken up at the teacher's discretion.

For the whole of English history, then, can it be contended that the plan of study set forth is inadequate? Is there not here at the

disposal of the Washington teachers a body of material on England's history large enough in scope to meet the needs of their pupils? The text subject-matter is compact in form, and the time allowed to it for discussion and for judicious supplementation is proportionately enlarged, for the average of text pages per recitation for two full years is very small. Individual preference might change the subjects to be studied or the number of them necessary to fill out the text. And given some other European history text of high worth, the times and topics which would need to be amplified or to be incorporated into the schedule must naturally vary. It has not been shown that such other texts do not give as much space relatively to English history as did the one under consideration. It is fair to assume that they offer at least as much. No advantage in any one book here suggests itself. The emphasis is strong upon the fact that given some tangible working basis, a two-year one-book European history course makes possible a satisfactory study of English history.

Time does not permit of a discussion of still other advantages which result—when a year of a high-school course is no longer set aside for English history alone—namely, a more *thorough all-European* course and a more properly balanced course in that nations other than England, and their history, are given relatively a due consideration, and conditions and influences, other than English, which properly belong to a European background of American history, are given a proper setting. Especially is this true of 18th and 19th century history.

In conclusion there must be mentioned two especial needs of such a one-book two-year course. They are (1) scholarship, skill and industry in the teacher and (2) ample supplementary text-books on English history, general secondary reference books and sources.

Without scholarship in the teacher of a higher order than that only which is necessary for straight text-book teaching, there cannot be sufficient insight or breadth of view. Without skill in the organization of material and in the ordering of an entire class to definite and common ends, every widening of the field into which the teacher must lead or direct will naturally make the results more unsatisfactory. And, above all, without diligent inquiry into the possibilities of various texts and references for supplementary study,

and without watchfulness of the work of the class on the part of the teacher, this course must fail.

There must also be at the disposal of a class adequate library facilities, to meet the increased opportunity for library work. In addition to the usual references and sources on general European history, there must be a good supply of English history source books, general reference works, constitutional and social histories and good standard text-books. There should be at the disposal of a class a sufficient variety or duplicate number of such text-books to permit of a preparation by all the members of the class of the same subjects at the same time, for some such definite and systematic work is essential to an effective rounding out of English history.

With a school properly equipped and a teacher properly prepared, I submit that a two-year one-book European history is a feasible and sensible plan of study, offering many advantages to counterbalance apparent weaknesses.

DISCUSSION

JAMES SULLIVAN, Boys' High School, Brooklyn: The idea that modern conditions cannot be understood without a knowledge of centuries of previous history is a very common one. Yet so much time is spent in studying ancient and mediæval history that the student never gets an opportunity to know the world in which he is living, or the events of the last few centuries which made the present what it is.

It is far more important for the pupil of today to know how the president is chosen than to know the details of the election of archons and consuls. Knowledge of the latter will not assist the student in understanding the former. Acquaintance with the rise and growth of Mormonism and Christian Science is very desirable and it is not necessary to study the religious wars in France in order to have such an acquaintance.

The whole discussion, as Mr. Beard has attempted to show us, resolves itself into a query as to what is the most important. Given a certain amount of time to devote to history in the secondary schools, is it not far more desirable to cut out very large portions of the material devoted to ancient and mediæval history, and devote the time and space thus saved to a more extended treatment of the last few centuries? The world as we know it today has been made since 1750. It is only for the understanding of such matters as religion, art, the courts, jury system, etc., that it is necessary to go beyond that date. Why not then in the name of ordinary sense devote a far larger proportion of our texts to recent history? That the subject is difficult is accounted for by the fact that few writers have attempted to present it simply. Those who argue that it is too complicated to be understood by students of the last years of the secondary school will in the same breath tell us to study English history of the nineteenth century. Yet in all the great movements of the nineteenth century England has been the central figure. If her history for this period can be studied, so can the history of the rest of the world.

CHARLES M. ANDREWS, Johns Hopkins University: I am very much indebted to President Herrick for giving me the opportunity of discussing this morning the subject that formed the main interest

of yesterday's session.* What to teach in preparatory schools and how to teach it is one of those hardy annuals in the field of historical debate that will never die, and one of those topics regarding which excellent arguments can be brought forward to support almost any view that human ingenuity can discover. Of all people perhaps he whose work lies in the university has less right than others to express himself with any pretense at authority on this point, which is primarily a concern of the secondary school teachers. Only the latter can know the significance of hours, and periods, and the possibilities of the youthful mind, and how much can be done within a certain time and how much cannot be done, and whether this or that bit of advice or suggestion is capable of practical application or not. The college and university teacher, who intrudes into this field, is often told to mind his own business, for what can he know about the needs and limitations of children of that age. The secondary school teacher often accepts the advice that comes from the college world with the same impatience exhibited by the father and mother of children toward the advice of maiden aunts or bachelor uncles.

There is reason for this impatience, and if there is one object more than another that an Association such as this is organized to promote, it is the bringing about of a closer union between the history teacher in the secondary school and the history teacher in the college, that each may the better understand the wishes and opinions of the other, and that a common ground of agreement may be reached regarding some of the great problems of history-teaching. One of the most conspicuous attempts to reach such an agreement was made when the American Historical Association appointed its committee of seven. The report of the committee gave a better opportunity than had been had before to examine and criticise the existing situation and to comment clearly and intelligently upon its weaknesses and defects. Intelligent criticism is always a mark of progress and such a report stands as a very important step forward in the direction of better and more systematic methods and of closer relations between teachers in the different grades.

The report of this committee, full of valuable suggestions as it is, is nevertheless far from final, and in some respects we are driven to believe that the committee unintentionally perpetrated a pleasantry upon the teaching world, which, crystallized into the form of a series of text-books by the publishing houses, has become a matter of serious concern to hundreds of schools which are endeavoring to live up to the recommendations of the committee. This pleasantry is the declaration that it is possible to cover the entire range of his-

*Professor Andrews was unavoidably absent when his name was called at the opening session.

tory from early Grecian times to the present day in four years. When we take into consideration that pupils in preparatory schools are to begin this course at twelve years of age and to complete it normally at sixteen, we realize that the task thus set is a stupendous one, and we are forced to the conclusion that there is something fundamentally wrong about a suggestion that imposes upon teachers and pupils a task of such exaggerated proportions. The difficulties have long been recognized by teachers engaged in the practical labor of carrying this recommendation into effect and scarcely a year has passed since 1899 that there has not been raised a protest against the scheme in its present form. The American Historical Association has at last undertaken a revision of the plan and has appointed a new committee to suggest remedies. The report of this committee has not yet been presented, and in the meantime many individual remedies have been brought forward of great or less merit.

At the meeting yesterday two papers were presented, admirable in form and spirit, that were designed to meet in part at least this difficulty which confronts the preparatory school teacher. Dr. Beard meets the problem by suggesting the practical omission of all early European history and the concentrating of attention upon the modern period; Mr. Maurer presents a plan for the teaching of English history as a part of Continental history and the devoting of two years to the combined subjects. Each suggestion is worthy of careful attention, and each is supported by a wealth of argument and illustration.

With Dr. Beard's general desire to lay more stress upon the modern period in so far as teaching in general is concerned I am in cordial sympathy. But the arguments that apply to this contention in its application to college work will not apply to work in the preparatory schools. In the first place, it destroys all sense of perspective in that it deals with a brief period of time and omits all portrayal of the earlier conditions of human development. In the second place, it introduces the pupil to a phase of history that is exceedingly complex and difficult to understand and in its deeper significance lies beyond the comprehension of pupils of that age. The problems are rather social and institutional than biographical and actional and the range is so wide that the pupil must inevitably find difficulty in grasping it in all its bearings. In the third place, if modern history be substituted for the year of general European history, no proper introduction will have been made to the two years of English and American history that are to follow. Dr. Beard's belief that modern history is a subject that is attracting more than any other the attention of scholars today and is therefore capable of fresher and more interesting treatment may be met by the statement that there never has been a time when feudalism in all its aspects was more assidu-

ously studied or when it was arousing greater interest among teachers and pupils than at the present time. I am not convinced that anything would be gained by substituting modern for general history in one of the years of the four years' course.

Mr. Maurer advances a very different solution of the problem. He would retain all the essential elements recommended by the committee of seven, but would combine the second and third years in such a way as to treat general European history inclusive of English history for two years instead of one. Thus he would eliminate English history as an independent subject, making it but a part of continental history. The answer to this suggestion is that it threatens to make confusion worse confounded, by rendering the subject of continental history more complex than it was before. Continental history has a certain integral unity of its own and it is not often that the history of England is a part of that integrity. The pupil would, therefore, have to add one more to the many diverse aspects of continental history and by just so much would clog his mind with unrelated matter. Furthermore, the teaching of English history in shreds and patches destroys that one feature of English history which renders it unique among all phases of history—its unity and continuity, a feature that places English history in a class by itself, not only as preparing the way for the study of American history but also as furnishing an opportunity to trace the unbroken development of a great people through all phases of its career. To teach the child in the preparatory school the whole history of Western Europe inclusive of England, even in two years, is to cram him with such a multifarious mass of information as to reduce him to idiocy, unless he is exceptionally mature or is taught by a teacher of genius in the art of knowing what to leave out and how to correlate the remainder in such fashion as to interest the pupil and keep his mind alert and free from confusion. I am convinced that few secondary school teachers have either the knowledge or the ability to do this.

The whole question of including general European history in the preparatory school course is open to a fresh consideration of the whole matter. For students going to college it ought to be omitted entirely, as every college today gives just such a course during its first or second year. For the pupil who is not going to college, the matter is perhaps an open one and there is certainly something to be said in favor of giving such a pupil some knowledge of the general outline of European development, yet at best such a course must be very cursory and by its complexity may have the unhappy result of alienating such a pupil from all further interest in the subject of history as such. History is so easily made a dull subject that one is inclined to wonder whether anything is gained by trying, at that stage of the pupil's development, to fill the mind with what many

deem useful information. Such a doubt leads one to raise that most fundamental of all questions—what is the main object which a teacher has before him in taking up history at all in the preparatory school? Leaving out of account the obligation to meet the requirements of the college, the object of such a teacher certainly ought not to be the imparting of mere information. A pupil may have all the facts of history at his finger's end and may be able to reel off data by the yard and yet really have no idea of what history is. History is a life study. To attempt to cram a child's mind with information that he cannot possibly remember is almost criminal. Excess of detail, attempts to cover too multifarious a variety of subjects, serve only to clog the mind and deaden the interest. The effort to cover all history is as bewildering to the pupil as is the attempt on the part of the traveler to see all that he can see by rushing from town to town, castle to castle, country to country, in the fear lest something may be omitted. The inevitable result is confusion and consequent intellectual stupor.

The first object of history teaching is to arouse a wholesome and intelligent interest in the past and never to allow that interest to flag. Simplicity should, therefore, be the key note of the instruction, and the teacher should dare to leave out whatever does not lend itself to the accomplishment of that end. The second object is to arouse in the mind of the pupil a right idea of what history is, to cultivate a sense of historical progress, historical perspective and proportion, historical continuity and unity. To this end the pupil should understand that no fact is worthy to be remembered that cannot be explained by him, that no details should be learned that are unessential to an understanding of the larger whole. The memorizing of certain dates is important both as a matter of discipline and as an aid to the grouping of general ideas and views; but the reason why such facts and dates are necessary should be made so evident that the student realizes the necessity of them. To inculcate a right understanding of what history really is demands that in the preparatory schools the subjects taught should be selected with this end in view, and of all subjects that which lends itself most admirably to the purpose is the history of England. I would rather see two years given to English history with the history of the continent studied as a background than to devote two years to continental history with English history thrown in. A careful, thorough, and intelligent study of English history meets all the requirements that should be imposed upon the preparatory schools. English history traces the growth of a people from primitive times to the present day and so gives the amplest opportunity to the pupil to acquire a sense of continuity and historical perspective. It deals with a single people, the unity of whose activities can be preserved and whose progress can be traced

without constantly switching off the main line as is inevitably the case with continental history. It gives an opportunity to follow a constantly expanding subject which enables the student to expand himself mentally as his subject becomes more complex and to comprehend more readily the underlying and far-reaching influences which have brought about the conditions of the present day. It enables him to deal to a certain extent with economic and constitutional questions, which at best he can hardly do at all in connection with continental history. In other words, English history offers one of the very best subjects that can be introduced into the curriculum of the preparatory school, as furnishing an opportunity to give that historical attitude of mind which is after all one of the most conspicuous objects which the preparatory school has to promote. History is not primarily a subject to be studied for its disciplinary character; it does not furnish a training ground wherein to exercise the mind in historical gymnastics; it does not furnish a series of exercises for the strengthening of the memory. It has higher aims than these: It seeks to stimulate thought; to extend the mental horizon; to awaken sympathy and interest; to provoke criticism; to make us fairer in our judgments, more moderate in our opinions, less outspoken in our prejudices, more optimistic in our view of life and in our faith in the progress of the human race. In each of these particulars the preparatory school can begin an important work.

J. MONTGOMERY GAMBRILL, Baltimore Polytechnic Institute: The question of aims and values in history work has been much discussed, yet such questions as those before us cannot be intelligently answered unless we set standards. We must agree upon the aim of history teaching in the secondary schools, and in the light of that aim discuss the relative values of material. Three standards of value might be set for secondary history teaching: Educational value, Historical value and College Entrance value. I shall venture in this discussion to ignore entirely the third. Stated very briefly it is the particular value of history in the school to place the student in the best possible relation of intelligent understanding with the institutions and social and political conditions among which he lives. It should also at the same time have its share in mental and moral training; and in speaking of this training I do not in the least mean to imply an acceptance of the "formal discipline" dogma, but for the very reason that human relations will be the most important in the life of each secondary pupil, the study which deals with that topic will give training of the utmost practical value.

What I have already said will doubtless indicate that I am in thorough accord with the spirit of Dr. Beard's paper, but I cannot go with him in all of his applications. In his enthusiasm Dr. Beard

proposes a great deal of material that is practically the study of current events—valuable indeed, but not, strictly speaking, history. History implies particularly a process of growth through time—a genetic study rather than a descriptive or scientific investigation of current civilization. The modern period should be stressed because it contributes most largely and directly to the present, not because it *is* the present.

I do not think we can dispense with ancient history nor afford to cover it with contempt. We need to examine the roots of things; the very strangeness and far-away-ness of ancient history are in its favor; but I do think the time devoted to it could profitably be reduced to a half-year. A little study will show that in the main historical and educational values in history work will coincide. We cannot effect this reduction with the ordinary text-books, because the proportions of such books do not admit of it. What we need is a text presenting only the really significant and important things in ancient history; around these large topics should be grouped much detail, but only significant detail, unifying itself around the subject in hand. All irrelevant material should be rigidly excluded regardless of the importance that may attach to it because of the classical tradition. An examination of all the leading text-books in ancient history shows an allotment of space varying from two to six pages for the Samnite wars. It seems to me that from two to six lines would be a better proportion. Whether there were three wars or one, and what particular things happened at the different stages of each war, are matters of no significance or importance whatever to American boys of the Twentieth Century, A.D. This will serve as a fair type of many things that could be omitted without loss.

For the third topic no time is left me for discussion. It is a large and difficult question. I can only say that while the plan proposed by Mr. Maurer seems practicable, I seriously doubt the expediency of breaking up English history in this way. From an educational point of view at least it offers serious objections, and I am not sure but that the matter could be managed just the other way about quite as readily as in that proposed.

J. M. VINCENT, Johns Hopkins University: The gentlemen who argue for the modern period assume that when a teacher is engaged with ancient or mediæval history his mind is confined to that period and cut off from the contemplation of modern times. If that is their view, it is a misconception of the duties of an instructor. I have no use for a teacher who is not constantly making comparisons with the things of today. He should be alive to the origins of modern ideas and institutions, both for the purpose of awakening interest and for showing the true perspective of history. On the other hand,

the study of modern history alone is inadequate. If the purpose is to make the reading of the newspaper intelligible, let me ask how you are to explain the situation in Austria today unless you go back to the time when that empire was a miscellaneous collection of tribes into which the German race thrust itself as a conqueror. Or, in the case of the gentleman whose pupils are attracted by the subject of "interest," when they desire to foreclose their mortgages, how you are to explain the term "fee simple" without going a long way back of the Nineteenth Century.

PERCY L. KAYE, Baltimore City College: I am decidedly opposed to the plan of Professor Maurer for combining the courses in English and European history for several reasons. In the first place such a change would destroy the unity and continuity of English history. Professor Maurer has given what appears to me to be a quantitative rather than a qualitative view of how English history may be taught. He has shown how a certain amount of material relative to that subject may be obtained from Robinson's History of Western Europe with references to other books. The quantity seems to be beyond question. But what of the quality of the historical knowledge gained by the method he has proposed? The history of England is broken into a number of fragments to be studied separately, here a little and there a little, and between each of these is to be sandwiched in similar fragments of the history of Continental Europe, more or less foreign to the subject. The student will get by this method what might be called a cross-section view of the condition of several countries at various periods, but will obtain a connected and intelligent knowledge of none. English history more than that of any other state of Europe possesses a unity of its own. Studied consecutively it affords the best possible opportunity for the observation of the working out of cause and effect in the development of its social, economic and political institutions. I believe that the inevitable result of combining the study of European and English history would be to destroy the unity of the latter and make it impossible to secure a clear view of the growth and meaning of her peculiar institutions.

Another serious objection to the plan suggested is that it would be likely to result in a distorted notion of the several states of Europe. Either England will be seen from a Continental standpoint or the history of Continental Europe will be Anglo-Saxonized. It would be next to impossible to avoid falling into Scylla or Charybdis. England's influence in Continental politics will be exaggerated, or the impression will be given that her development has been shaped by the policies of the other states of Europe. Either would be a serious perversion of the truth. Up to 1688 England was iso-

lated and had no foreign policy. To study her history as a part merely of the history of Europe would be to ignore the essential fact that England has an institutional history of her own that has neither determined nor been greatly determined by the institutions of other states.

Another objection to the proposed change is that it would further separate English from American history. To study English history from the European side would mean to neglect it from the American side. Up to 1776 the history of England is the history of America. To realize the significance of this connection is far more important than any relation between either the United States or England and the Continent of Europe. An understanding of the constitutional development of the United States is impossible without a knowledge of the English constitution; and I maintain that no clear view of English constitutional history can be obtained by the secondary student if English history is studied, half in one year, half in another, and side by side with the history of the other European states.

LOUISE H. HAESELER, High School for Girls, Philadelphia: It may be that children in Philadelphia are different from other children, but we find among them a growing spirit of irreverence. Authority is not respected as it should be, old age is derided, whatever is not modern, is not up-to-date, has no value in their eyes. Now I fear that if we discard the teaching of ancient and mediæval history altogether in the secondary schools in order to find time for the modern period we shall strengthen this alarming spirit of irreverence instead of crushing it. If we ought to teach the pupil rather than the subject it seems to me it is of first importance to make it clear to our boys and girls that we in this age of the world owe a great debt to the past. That lesson history alone can teach, but it cannot teach it if we confine ourselves to the study of the 18th and 19th centuries as Professor Beard suggested. I am heartily in favor of trying to find a way by which we may have more time for modern history, but to concentrate our attention entirely upon events and conditions of recent centuries is to strengthen the impression already too strong in the minds of our young people that what is old and past is of no importance. Nothing could be more unfortunate and nothing could be more historically untrue.

CORRELATION OF HISTORY WITH OTHER SUBJECTS

SARAH C. BROOKS

TEACHERS' TRAINING SCHOOL, BALTIMORE

Hinsdale in his admirable treatise on *How to Study and Teach History*, says:

"Too much stress cannot be placed on organization as essential to real knowledge. But, further, it is as essential to retention as to acquirement. The memory is unable to cope with much unrelated and discursive material—that is, facts can no more be remembered irrespective of their relations than they can be understood and explained. It is easier to remember two things in relation than either one separately. In fact, no one thing can be remembered separately. Within limits, we lighten the burden by increasing it. The operations of memory are controlled by the laws of association; and the laws of association govern the organization of empirical data."

Organized knowledge is easily available, being subject to the laws of recall, and by its classified arrangement is ready for use in the various thought processes and practical applications of daily life. The person most to be depended upon in cases of emergency is one who has himself well in hand in his muscular and mental organisms.

Correlation as an organizing power can best be appreciated when considered in connection with the early processes of education, when knowledge is largely objective, when reasoning is associational, when fancy and faith are free to invent and believe, and the muscular self is eager to be an active factor in the absorption and elaboration of experience. Here, there is no history, nor science, nor art. All is in a state of becoming. By tradition the young person must be inducted as rapidly as possible into the 'mysteries of "the three r's,"' but the means by which these mysteries are overcome are, at this day and age, limited only by the taste and judgment of the

teacher. The primary school of today comes near to proving the theory, stressed by Froebel, that, in the beginning, experience, however various, is, in a sense, a unity, and that out of this conglomerate, the various studies come, in time, to have their distinctive beginnings. The child responds with eagerness to every effective call to the senses, to every appeal to fancy, to statements explanatory of obscure phenomena; so that whatever claims his attention and makes possible a better adjustment of the sensori-motor organism is grist for the intellectual mill. Nature, home experiences, literature, art, the sciences, unite in contributing to needs of the growing organism; and that school is most effective in its work which endeavors in a sensible way to differentiate its early exercises as little as possible. By some inherent interest the work should be unified, the subjects of reading, number, language, and the like, growing incidentally but definitely out of this unity. Correlation, at this point, assumes another duty. Topics are now consciously related that before could not be differentiated. The more numerous and intimate these relations, the better the mental content.

Aside from the individual benefit arising from the effort to unify mental experience, correlation offers the only solution to the vexed question of readjusting and simplifying our crowded curriculum. It aids us in deciding not only what subjects may be best grouped together, but what knowledge is of most worth; and, if given proper leeway, it would decide upon the survival of the fittest by dropping once and for all those topics which advancing civilization has long since rendered useless. The fact of the case is, however, that in preparing courses of study we are still bound by tradition. In sickness, we want all the light that modern science can throw upon the case. In education, the discoveries of modern science are in too many communities still matters of speculative interest.

Among the subjects to be given an early and prominent place on our schedules is history; for in it we discover food for thought, incentives to right conduct, reasons for belief in the triumph of right, and the stuff of which some working ideals are formed. Because of its ethical value we wish it to begin as early as possible, provided it has a right beginning, and because of the extent of the

field which it covers, we wish it to continue as long as possible. In view of these facts, how can we make it as valuable as possible in the child's experience, and by what means can we meet the time limits of the curriculum? The selection of subject matter must correspond at every stage to the degree of mental development of the child; and history must be so related to other kindred subjects that there will exist a condition of interrelatedness between them which will result in a coalescence at times, allowing the study of a topic in one to cross-cut the subject matter of another.

The subjects which lend themselves most readily to correlation with history are literature, geography, civics, the foreign languages, English composition and construction.

Of all these subjects, literature is the most closely related. History is born out of it; it is inspired by history; it vivifies history; it is history, if we may stretch history to mean a record of the progress of the human soul as well as a record of the progress of civilization. In return, when genius selects and treats a crucial topic in history, that also becomes literature. In the secondary schools the closest relations should exist between the teachers of the two subjects in order that students may profit by the interrelated teaching plans thus made possible. In the elementary school the courses should be planned in relation to mutual helpfulness and agreement, and they should appear together. Without literature, history is shorn of its life and color; without history, literature is shorn of its strength.

Before authentic records began, man was educated by the songs and poems of wandering minstrels, and by the repetition of these productions in the home. The poems of Homer and Hesiod supplied the Athenian boy with all that was considered essential in history, geography, and ethics; and those portions which were supposed to inspire to generous action and intense love of country were taught him while yet a constant inmate of the home. The wise city fathers wanted Athenian ideals wrought into the system of the youth and resorted to the most effective methods to accomplish their purpose. What was good enough for the pre-Christian youth is good enough for the child of today, provided we can find in the folk lore and myths of the various nations material fit to be wrought into their mental and moral fibre.

Historically speaking, the child is blind in both eyes, as are all primitive peoples. He lives *here*; things happen now. The past and the distant are unknown and unappreciated. Through the vista of "once upon a time," and over the road into "a far country," his time sense gradually awakens and his horizon becomes widened. Through the fable and the fairy story, he begins to perceive the consequences of human action and grapple with the problem of cause and effect. To this extent, nursery rhymes, fables, fairy stories, mythology open the eyes of the blind and arouse a glimmering interest in cause and effect. To the request for a *true* story, legends and ballads are given, and the string of continuity, which holds the present to the immediate past is supplied by "a few years ago," and "when your grandfather was a little boy." When the spirit of wandering and conquest arouse, there are stories of world heroes and tales of knightly adventure culminating, in the secondary school, in a comparative study of the mythologies and legendary characters of the various primitive peoples of whom we have available records.

In the meantime, the reader of *Robin Hood* and *Tales of Troy* is given oral instruction in the courageous and effective lives of our American pioneers, of ocean rovers in the days of discovery, and finally settles down to the study of history proper, as we always designate that period at which the eye appeal in a printed page takes the place of the ear appeal in the narrative told, as if any authentic history were not history proper. Here literature supplies another need of the student or pupil. The printed page is not yet sufficiently familiar to give words the power through association to react in a lively way upon the imagination. A paragraph in a text-book of history is nothing more than a collection of dry statements of facts. The mind needs pictures of the times to form a background for facts. Literature supplies living characters, portrays the manners and customs of a given age, and otherwise clothes the dry bones of history with life.

Tennyson's *The Revenge* throws a flood of light upon the struggles of England and Spain for mastery upon the sea in that wonderful age of "voyages and discoveries." *Westward Ho!* unites Old Plymouth with the new. *Hiawatha* and *Standish* reconstruct Indian life about the Great Lakes and in New England, preparing

the way for French explorations and the struggle of English, French and Indians in colonial times. *Evangeline* and *Hanging of the Crane* give pictures of colonial times in New England, and Churchill's recent novels supply them for the Southern Colonies.

Macaulay's *Lays of Ancient Rome*, Scott's *Lay of the Last Minstrel* and *Lady of the Lake*, stories of Bruce and Wallace; Martineau's *Prince and Peasant*, Pitman's *Stories of Old France*, Dickens' *Tale of Two Cities*; Shakespeare's dramas—all supply most interesting matter for the interpretation of important related epochs in European history. The list is by no means complete. Dickens' *Child's History of England*, Scott's, Cooper's and Eber's novels appeal to the adolescent mind and pave the way for more serious and connected study later.

This whole subject of historical literature is so rich that it makes a strong appeal to capable and original teachers in the direction of wholly abandoning the text-book in history and basing the work upon the drama, the historical romance, and lyric and epic poetry.

Owing to the difficulties surrounding these isolated experiences, however, there is little danger that the old order of things will ever be changed. To the criticism that the historical novel distorts truth and changes dates, I can only answer that I never hear the enthusiast in history teaching present these facts as insurmountable obstacles. Facts and chronology we have always with us. The remedy can easily be supplied; but without the romance, we could never have the historical setting.

The subject claiming attention next is geography, equally as important as literature in its relation to our topic, but not of equal culture value.

Geography conditions history. "The lay of the land" invites or repels invasion, gives a people ready communication with the world at large, encouraging conquest, exploration, discovery, and a general cosmopolitan experience, or secluding and individualizing a nation by supplying the natural barriers to communication with neighboring peoples. Routes of travel, the tide of settlement, the routes of campaigns, the arteries of commerce are all pre-ordained in the arrangement of a country's hills and plains, mountain passes,

and waterways, or at least pre-ordained until the advent of the engineer. For natural reasons the star of empire took its way westward and at last reports was still touring.

Geography ties history to the earth and saves it from vagueness and obscurity. So true is this that one who attempts to read history without constant reference to, and construction of, maps, has the most hazy ideas concerning events. History, on the other hand, gives meaning and interest, and often beauty, to place. So intimate and necessary is this relation that much valuable time would be saved if the courses were planned together and if, in schools where departmental work is done, there were conferences between teachers of geography and history.

School excursions to visit historic monuments and places, roads, relics, documents ought to be considered essential to the study of history and geography and arranged according to the complexity of knowledge required for the observation.

With the discoverers, explorers, and pioneers, there is a great amount of interesting work to be done in tracing routes, drawing outline maps, locating settlements, indicating harbors, and the like, and the teacher's map, no matter how excellent it may be, cannot supply the place of individual effort on the part of children. Relief maps, showing highways of travel and traffic, campaign maps, following the fortunes of war, political maps, following the accessions of territory, must be made and made frequently to meet historical needs. It ought to be a matter of course that students in high schools, training schools, and colleges should make their own maps instead of depending upon ready-made outlines, because of the ease and facility with which pupils have done like work in the elementary schools.

Construction as a related subject follows naturally upon the heels of the previous topics. Construction and nature study, including elementary physics, should be intimately related to history and geography. In our own country's history, the child hears of canoes, dug-outs, keel-boats, flat-boats, Conestoga wagons, forts, tepees, the long house of the Iroquois, etc. They are all words, words, empty words, without construction. Even pictures only remove one degree of darkness from the pall about them. In European history he reads

of castle, of armor, of strange weapons of war, of galleys, triremes, caravals, pontoon bridges. These again are empty words without construction. However crude the product, the idea profits by the effort of muscle and judgment. All these things are possible and their construction brings such renewal of interest in the study and such growth of the community spirit among the children that the teacher is more than repaid for the turmoil and strife in which she lives. The constructive interest reacts in another direction also. In order to work out a dim idea of the Viking's winged hat, the war chariot of the Persian, or the spear of the Knight, books and magazines are ransacked for pictures, so that in studying such a subject as the invasion of Xerxes, the children collect such a number and variety of illustrations as give a fair idea of the habits and customs of the times, both in Greece and Persia. Moreover, the architecture of the period is represented in connection with these subjects of immediate interest, and who shall say that the art training arising out of the experience is not worth while?

History, with literature, furnishes a mass of rich material for composition in the various forms, and for such training in composition and form as the most exacting may require. Why go afield for subject matter when interesting material is ready at hand, when studies would be strengthened by exchange of commodities? Even original efforts at dramatic form, and poetry, using topics or suggestive incidents from the text studied, need not be considered impossible. Children of the grades derive the greatest interest and benefit from efforts of this character, and what may not be possible to the student in high school and college? Here again, where the subjects are taught by different teachers there is need of frequent conference.

Civics is a direct out-growth of history. In its advanced form it is political economy. Its purposes are two, training in sociology and training for citizenship. Its methods of instruction are two: first, a study of the structure of government and the duties of the individual in relation to the same; second, discipline in the performance of such social and individual duties as fall to one during school life, with the expectation that thereby sound habits may be formed that will stand the future citizen in good stead when he

assumes the duties of citizenship. No amount of knowledge of government will make a good citizen. Integrity of character is not white-washed on, but built into the very essence of the individual.

THE CORRELATION OF HISTORY AND GEOGRAPHY

EDWARD BENNETT MATHEWS

JOHNS HOPKINS UNIVERSITY

Asked as I am to speak upon the correlation of history and geography, one of the problems present in teaching history, I feel somewhat out of place since I must frankly admit at the outset that I am a teacher neither of history nor of geography. Moreover my school-day experience with both subjects belongs to the archaic period when the methods employed were often radically different from those in vogue today. For this reason and for others which will appear later I must ask your indulgence if my remarks deal with methods already trite, or impracticable in application. Assuming for the moment that the teaching of history consists essentially in visualizing in the mind of the student the incidents and their settings of successive periods, and also their origins, I would offer a few suggestions which may aid in sharpening the focus and improving the detail of the picture which is left on the human sensitive plate.

Many facts of physical geography may be used to assist in vitalizing the historic picture; for example:

(a) While tracing the development of settlements in a state like Maryland a study of the physical features of the region will explain many things, such as the fact that no settlers ventured into the fertile valleys of Frederick and Washington counties for more than a hundred years after the initial settlement at St. Mary's, although it took less than half this period for the colonists of Massachusetts to establish vigorous settlements in the Connecticut valley even against strong Dutch resistance. The distance from base was as great or greater, the means of transportation more arduous and the natives as hostile. This was not due to differences in religion or stock so much as to physical features. Intercommunication along the New England coast was more hazardous than across the waters

of the Chesapeake and the landing places were few compared with the numberless sheltered nooks in the estuaries of our rivers.

(b) The study of the location of the metropolitan towns of the different states may likewise be illumined by a correlation of the facts of physical environment. Jamestown in Virginia, St. Mary's in Maryland and Baltimore on the Bush all antedated their successful rivals, Richmond and Baltimore on the Patapsco; while Philadelphia on the Delaware, New York on the Hudson and the seaport towns of New England have remained locally supreme. The student may learn by an application of his physical geography that the first named ports were not situated at the points farthest inland on navigable, ice-free waters as were their successful rivals which in times of peace became more effective points for the debarkation and distribution of settlers and goods.

(c) The effects of physical environment in the development of the single-trade, amusement-loving agriculturalists of the South and the ingenious jack-of-all-trades of New England are often noted orally, but it can do no harm to let the student study the different types of physiography in the two regions. When the student discovers for himself by a study of topographic maps the fact that the Yankee settlements were more or less isolated by hills and deep valleys and that each settler perforce became miller, bootmaker and blacksmith for his family to eke out the slender income derived from planting the spots of soil won each year by turning over the countless boulders of his clearing, he will appreciate anew the sources of Yankee thrift and ingenuity and a cause for part at least of the dour New England conscience.

Even facts of geology may aid in revarnishing the fading picture of historic settings. The abundant brick clays that form the surface from New Jersey southward explain the early construction of palatial brick mansions on the fertile farms of the interestuarine necks of tidewater Maryland and Virginia without bringing into play the oft-repeated claim that all the bricks of our southern homes were brought from England. The presence of iron ores in these same formations may recall with interest to the alert young American the fact that George Washington was able by his environment to become one of the chief factors in the iron trust of his day. More advanced

students might find interest in tracing the relations between the beginnings of the French Revolution, or the development of unique religious sects, and the areas of limestone whose fertile farms gave wealth and leisure to the bourgeois Frenchman and the thrifty Dutch of Pennsylvania to think of other things than the mere gaining of a living.

But it is chiefly to the *use of maps* ancient and modern that I would call attention. They may be used to great advantage in stimulating the student to see things as they were.

Again I must use Maryland as an illustration. Take the little artificial boundary separating the Eastern Shore counties from those of Virginia. Why does this line have its peculiar inclination just off a true east and west line? It was due to the ignorance of the best surveyors of the colonies in 1666. An ignorance which some still have. The colonists thought they could run a true west boundary if only they could once get a correct direction and run a straight line. Three stakes in a due west line were set up, then the back stake was taken up and placed in front in line with the two unmoved. Surely this would give the desired line, they argued. They knew less of the curvature of the earth than a grammar school boy and thought a line of latitude was straight. The ignorance of the day is perpetuated in their line.

Other problems that might be given a bright little fellow of some maturity are the questions:

Why is the southeastern boundary of New York so crooked? He may get some clue from sudden change in names from Dutch to English origin.

Why does Delaware have a circular northern boundary?

Where does the boundary of New Jersey leave the Jersey shore and go to the middle of the Delaware? (Possibly some of the teachers cannot answer that, since many maps incorrectly place the line in the middle of the river all the way.) The origin of this boundary might easily be found by search on the part of a grammar or high school subject.

This question of boundary lines links itself so closely with political geography that one might frame innumerable questions of this sort. In fact almost every political limit which is not a natural

boundary has wrapped up within it a long story of rival political ambitions, political conquest, treaties with Indians long since forgotten, or ignorance of the country when the line was decreed. Many of the accepted lines are in error in some detail and others need careful historical and legal study to establish their validity.

Another use of modern or contemporaneous maps might be the tracing out of the *courses of expeditions*, like that of Arnold across Maine, or the physical setting of well-known battles. For example, few geographic studies of nearby themes bring out the broader strategic lines of campaigns better than that of the bearing of the mass of South Mountain on the plans of the rival leaders at the Battle of Gettysburg. Neither general gained all that he hoped for from the use of this picturesque barrier to the ready movement of troops since the battle took place at a point which neither had chosen at the outset.

The use of maps made prior to the modern period of geodetic accuracy must be left to the more experienced students. The comingling of fact and fancy, accurate information, hearsay and willful misrepresentation demands the presence of a well-developed critical faculty. The tracing of the genealogy of these productions back to the few mother maps would, however, correct many of the popular misconceptions held even by some historians. Let me cite one illustration which has often been used by the local historians of Maryland and Pennsylvania. I refer to the true location of Cape Henlopen at the mouth of the Delaware River. Many ingenious explanations of the reasons for the conflicting claims of the followers of the Penns and the Baltimores might have been avoided by a knowledge of the older maps and their genealogical relationships. The decision of a high English court that the term "Cape Henlopen" used in a Privy Council Order of 1685 should be interpreted as meaning what is now the east end of the present Delaware-Maryland boundary where there is no cape, is absurd. It becomes more so when it is learned that a map of unusual excellence sent from Maryland to England in 1670 correctly locates the cape as it is today. The absurdity indeed is so great that partisans have charged William Penn with intentional deceit. Yet a study of early American cartography explains the incident. Herrman's map of 1670 has been lost

sight of and more than thirty standard maps of the day had repeated the error of Visscher's early map until in their ignorance the learned men of the Council of James II. thought there was a cape where there was none.

With this series of simple suggestions I may close my remarks in the hope that they have recalled or outlined ways in which the student's knowledge of geography may be used to visualize the historical contemporaneous setting or causal relations of incidents treated in history. Best of all the joy of discovery may be given to the individual thereby converting him from the task-fulfilling student absorbing accepted facts, to the interested, thinking boy who has won for himself first-hand knowledge.

THE CORRELATION OF HISTORY AND ENGLISH

CARLTON F. BROWN

BRYN MAWR COLLEGE

It was James Grimm who said that in the olden days poetry and history flowed in the same stream. The Greeks rightly regarded Homer as the father of history. So, too, in the old Nibelungen are to be found the earliest treasures of German history. In modern times, however, Grimm complained, education has interposed to separate them, and with the constant increase in the authority of education the gulf between history and poetry has steadily widened.

Whether one is disposed or not to agree with the general proposition for which Grimm in this essay was contending, in this observation he has stated an important truth. One need not go beyond the field of our own literature to find evidence of the close relation which formerly existed between history and poetry. The Anglo-Saxon Chronicle served as the common cradle of English history and English verse. Again in *Historia Ecclesiastica* of Venerable Bede we find the earliest authentic record not only of the Germanic conquest of Britain, but also of the beginnings of Christian poetry in Northumbria. In the mediæval period the connection between history and poetry was still preserved in the large family of rhyming chronicles, of which those of Robert of Gloucester and Robert Mannyng are the most conspicuous examples, as well as in such historical poems as Layamon's Brut. Even in the age of Elizabeth, men like Warner and Drayton devoted themselves to the composition of elaborate historical poems, while on the stage the chronicle history plays presented in living colors the more important scenes in the nation's history.

Nor will it be doubted that Grimm placed the responsibility where it belongs in attributing to the growth of education the separation of history and poetry which has been brought about in modern

times. To say that the change is due wholly to pedantry, however, would be obviously unfair. For specialization has been as necessary to progress in knowledge as division of labor is necessary to progress in the industrial arts. To carry one in any particular direction the straight line has an obvious advantage over the circle.

As the result of this process of specialization history and literature have come more and more to be subjects for technical study. In the one field the critical investigator finds himself called upon to make minute examination of all manner of records and documents, patiently accumulating and sifting evidence in the search for the solid basis of fact. In the other field the student strives by no less detailed researches to trace the influences which have united to produce every great work of literature, as well as those larger influences which determine the special character of the literary product of each generation, each century, each nation. Nor can the literary investigator do without the labor of the philologist who reduces language itself to a science no less exact than that of geology or chemistry. Without the aid of philology in determining the date and the dialect of the material which has come down to us, the literary historian could do but little before the era of colophon and title-page. The necessary consequence of all this is that literature and history have become distinct fields of study, each with its own technical method.

Unfortunately, there is danger that this process of specialization may be carried to such an extent that these technical methods may come to seem in themselves the end. It is to save ourselves from this danger that we need to keep clearly in mind the correlation of history and literature. For no two departments of study are more fundamentally bound together.

History is the record of men's deeds. Literature is the record of men's thoughts and feelings. How can one record be understood without reading the other also? Indeed, it is only by bringing the two records together and comparing them—interpreting men's feelings in the light of their deeds, and illustrating their deeds by their sentiments and feelings as they are expressed in literature—that the study either of literature or of history can be made vital.

Were I at this moment addressing an audience made up of teachers of English, I should remind them of the new light which

has been thrown upon Chaucer, for example, by the industrious scrutiny of patent-rolls and household accounts. Indeed, it is by means of this systematic search through these historical documents that most of our present knowledge of the poet's biography has been gained.

As it is, I take the opportunity to remind teachers of history of the rich store of illustrative material which may be gathered from literature. The field of English history alone will furnish abundant examples of this. All the way from Magna Charta to the Commonwealth, every struggle through which the nation passed found its echo in English verse.

The accurate historian, to be sure, may here and there be disturbed by the passionate partisanship which inspired many of these political poems. The *Song Against the King of Almaine* gives us a view of the wars of the barons which is far from impartial. Nor would one turn to the poems of Lawrence Minot for an unbiased account of the wars between England and Scotland in the time of Edward III. It will, of course, be the business of the historian to weigh in the balance the conflicting statements of men who gave utterance to passionate and partisan feeling.

But how shall we understand any political crisis without entering into the spirit of the contending parties and feeling the passions by which they were swayed? And where are these more vividly expressed than in such poems of warfare? In the same way, the causes of the peasant revolts which broke out in the fourteenth century are most clearly revealed in the pages of *Piers Plowman*—a poem which not only reflected, but which also set in motion the social discontent of the time.

So far as poems dealing directly with political and social movements are concerned, their importance to the historian will undoubtedly be conceded—though sometimes teachers of history are unaware of the amount of illustrative material which is to be gathered from literary documents. But the service of literature to the historian is not confined, I believe, to poems which are directly inspired by political and social controversy, but extends also to the more imaginative forms of literature. Let us take as an extreme example, the Arthurian romances. Nothing at first sight appears

further removed from history than these tales of marvel and Knightly adventure. The serious student of history would be justified, one might think, in totally ignoring such unhistorical material. Yet in an important sense these stories of the Round Table are faithful witnesses. The great problems which concern the historian of the Middle Ages are feudalism, chivalry and the crusades. Now, though we may smile at the exploits which the romances ascribe to King Arthur—indeed, though we doubt if he ever existed—at least we may find in these stories most life-like pictures of chivalry and feudalism. For the authors of the romances, with a delightful disregard for anachronism, have given us descriptions of the customs and institutions of their own day. The romantic literature, then, though utterly worthless as to facts about Arthur or about the Trojan War, has value as a record of the 12th and 13th centuries. From this standpoint, the historian cannot afford to exclude them from his list of "original sources."

The difference between the study of history and the study of English is, at bottom, chiefly, a difference of method—the fundamental aim, as we have seen, is the same. Moreover, even the differences in method are not so marked today as they were a generation ago. For the investigator in the field of literature has more and more been adopting the *historical* method. His business is no longer merely the examination of literary technique, or merely the aesthetic appreciation of literature, pronouncing his *obiter dicta*: "I like this; I do not like that." The student of literature is more and more disposed to equip himself for his task by the study of historical sources. Even in Dugdale's *Monasticon* and the Episcopal Registers he often unearths buried treasures.

In fact the modern student of literature is best defined as a literary historian. For literature, in one sense, is in itself merely one department of history. The literary historian, as truly as the historian of politics or of economics, is engaged in exploring a province in the great empire of the past—the history of civilization.

The historians, on their part, are also coming more and more to broaden the field of their inquiry. The older histories which concerned themselves chiefly with dynasties and dates are being superseded. The study of institutions and social tendencies is now recog-

nized as essential to an understanding of history. And such writers as W. E. H. Lecky and Andrew D. White devote themselves to tracing the progress of ideas in the Middle Ages—a purely modern conception of history.

To sum it up in a word, the tendency in both literature and history is constantly toward the philosophical outlook—at least it is recognized that this should be the goal toward which even technical studies should ultimately lead us.

There is then a growing resemblance in the method of students of history and of literature. Moreover, the object for which they labor is fundamentally the same. Both are endeavoring to make more intelligible the steps of human progress. It is the material which they offer toward this inquiry which gives value to all documents of the past, whether they be calendars of State Papers, Doomsday Books or poems. A great poem is something more than a clever exercise in word-craft. Into it the author has written something of himself and of his age. It is this which gives permanence to his work. It is this, likewise, which gives vitality to the study of his poem.

History and literature, therefore, are most vital at the very points where they touch. Let either of them, on the other hand, fail to realize these larger human relationships and its vitality disappears. It becomes thenceforth, however laborious and painstaking its erudition, merely a technical study, a pastime of pedantry.

THE CORRELATION OF HISTORY AND ECONOMICS

HENRY R. BURCH

CENTRAL MANUAL TRAINING SCHOOL, PHILADELPHIA

In discussing the relationship of history to economics it is well at the outset to bear in mind that such relationship is not necessarily one of subordination. It is not our purpose therefore to treat history as subordinate to economics nor economics as subordinate to history. Rather is it our intention to indicate the mutually helpful relationship existing between the two subjects. That is to say, we are interested in the question "At what points do history and economics touch one another?" It cannot be denied that many historical movements (e. g., the French Revolution) are closely associated with economic conditions and that frequently economic principles (e. g., Law of Diminishing Returns) are best understood only when viewed from an historical standpoint. To discover this coördination and complementary character of the two subjects will therefore be the aim of this brief discussion.

It is also to be borne in mind that this relationship between history and economics is to be looked at from the standpoint of teaching and not merely from the point of view of the relation inherently existing between the two subjects. How can we make our teaching of history more significant or our presentation of economics clearer? This is the question in which as teachers we are particularly interested—not in any deeper discussion of the inter-dependence of these two branches of knowledge.

It can be readily seen that the teaching of history furnishes many opportunities for the introduction of economic material. A whole school of writers would insist that such reference to economic conditions was to be regarded not merely as an opportunity but as a necessity. Indeed so great has been this emphasis laid by some writers upon economic causes that we have all grown familiar with

that view of regarding history known as its economic interpretation. But the forces at work in historical movements are so numerous and complex that many historians altogether refuse to recognize such an interpretation as accurate or even possible. More than this, since historical material lends itself so readily to illustrate preconceived economic theories, it is often charged that this economic interpretation of history leads to a false historical perspective and results in a distorted view of the history of the period under consideration. On the other hand, it cannot be doubted that one set of historical causes is economic in character, just as another set is personal and psychological. That the economic is the only or dominant set may undoubtedly be denied but that it is *a* set must be admitted. In the treatment, then, of this set of causes and conditions there is furnished an opportunity to link history with economics. Such linking seems mutually helpful to a clear comprehension of both the purely historical and the incidentally economic side of the question. The process results in the creation of more vivid impressions and clearer concepts.

The limits of this discussion make it possible to refer here to only one or two examples of this intimate connection between historical events and economic conditions. As a typical instance of this close association we may cite the history of the great reform bills passed by the English parliament in the Nineteenth Century. Even if we would, we cannot disassociate this bit of political history from its economic background. Reference must be made to the latter in order to secure a thorough comprehension of the former. And if we are so inclined we may enlarge upon the economic factors in the movement and link more closely the historical with the economic. For example, the necessity for reform in the system of Parliamentary representation can be clearly understood only by grasping the economic changes that had taken place in England resulting in the shifting of population from the south northward. The key to the political situation is found in the rise of mining and of manufacturing—both being economic factors of prime importance. Similarly the control of Parliament by the landlord class is an economic factor the significance of which must be clearly comprehended before entering upon a study of the struggle for representation and enlargement.

of the franchise. Land is no longer to be the dominant economic force in English society. Capital, and then labor, questions its supremacy. First the manufacturers and finally the laborers are admitted to the political rights formerly enjoyed by the landed aristocracy. The old aristocratic regime is replaced by a new industrial order. The historical and political movement is thus made vivid and striking by its economic interpretation, while at the same time abstract economic terms are individualized and put into concrete form.

In like manner we might indicate from a great mass of available historical material innumerable instances of this possibility of teaching history from its economic side. However, this brief survey makes detailed treatment impossible and we must therefore be content merely to suggest by a few random illustrations this mutual contact of history and economics.

For the sake of convenience we may glance at three classes of historical movements—intellectual, religious and political—and give an instance or two of how, in their teaching, economic factors may be emphasized.

Under intellectual movements may be pointed out the connection between cultural epochs and a social surplus. As illustrating this connection reference may be made in Greek history to the relation between slavery and the intellectual advancement made possible by the existence of a leisure class and to the Age of Pericles and its concomitance with the wealth of the Athenian empire. So likewise in later times we may call attention to the great Renaissance movement and its relation to the rise of commerce and to the establishment of the great centers of wealth in the Italian peninsula.

In our teaching of religious movements we may, in addition to the more general conditions—properly emphasized—make special note of such points as the industrial activities of the Church with particular emphasis upon the development of agriculture by the monastic orders; the economic as well as the political factors in the struggle between the papacy and royal authority as shown, for, example, in the contest between Church and State over the control of the wealth of the Church; the material help given to the Catholic cause by reason of Spain's enormous riches at the time of the

Reformation; or the relation between the rise of new religious faiths and industrial conditions shown, for example, in the origin of Methodism.

Political movements, we find, offer a fruitful field for observing the operation and influence of economic causes and conditions. A few instances of this economic under-current must, however, here suffice. In this connection our attention is called at once to the French Revolution. This great struggle for political rights has its distinctly economic side at once illustrated by such evident considerations as the wretched condition of the peasantry, the restrictions on industrial life, the system of taxation and the rise in the price of food.

The mere mention of these points suggests how this side may be elaborated. Likewise, in Irish history, the home rule movement has its economic aspect, its basis lying in the land problem. Or in Russia there is little doubt but that the present unrest is largely due to industrial causes and that political discontent is an outgrowth of economic distress. In fact this latter feature is especially prominent throughout the history of the Nineteenth Century. Similarly the modern struggle for world power, as illustrated by English, German, American or Japanese expansion is but a struggle for economic supremacy and modern war is the climax of industrial competition. So, too, on the frontier, the development of political liberty and equality is the logical consequence of economic freedom and independence, while our present tendency toward concentration of political power and responsibility is concomitant with industrial concentration. In such wise, by constant reference to this ever occurring interaction may the threads of history and economics be woven together.

Coming now to the formal study of economics we find that, because of its abstract nature, it is especially helpful to bring historical material into this more abstract field. Particularly is this true in teaching the elements of economics. The old starting points—land, labor and capital—must be given a concrete setting. Naturally we encroach upon geography in this connection, but geography is inseparably bound with industrial history and this, it is needless to say, is the kind of history with which economics is most closely

allied. To give concrete form to abstract terms is the main problem that confronts the teacher in presenting economics to the beginner. Industrial history is the medium through which this may be accomplished. The industrial history of England or of the United States might therefore well be studied in conjunction with the requisites of production. After dealing with general terms such as resources and environment their concrete expression may thus be seen in the industrial life of the world about us. Economic principles, abstract and *isolated*, are transformed almost beyond recognition when seen in their proper relation to different phases of national life. History comes to the aid of economics and illustrates how economic forces oft times shape the policies and affect the destinies of whole nations.

To become concrete take, for example, the teaching of some particular economic principle such as free trade or protection. It is almost superfluous to point out that this can best be presented only in conjunction with its actual working out in some country such as England or the United States. In economics, conditions often force the acceptance or rejection of a theory and a study of these conditions is therefore as essential as a study of the theory itself. In this manner is revealed the power of economic forces and the part played by them in national evolution.

In the teaching of economics, history must be constantly appealed to. Lack of productive capacity or its limitation in one form or another finds easy illustration in national decay, in wasteful wars or in the expulsion of industrial classes. The problems of exchange, the far-reaching importance of trade relations, the necessity of securing favorable centers of distribution are exemplified in the effects of the crusades, in the rise of free cities and in the great struggles for open ports and territorial expansion. In the same manner a study of the origin of economic theories draws upon the history of the times; or in discussing questions of distribution—the shares into which the world's wealth is divided and their recipients—we find the assistance of history invaluable. Economic groupings, while by no means identical with the class struggles of history, are nevertheless frequently reflected therein, and these familiar historical classes clarify economic terminology.

The conclusion, therefore, of this brief survey of the relation

of history to economics is that, if we desire to secure suggestive teaching and fruitful results, we can draw between the two subjects no rigid line of demarcation.

THE CORRELATION OF HISTORY AND THE CLASSICS

SAMUEL E. BERGER

CENTRAL HIGH SCHOOL, PHILADELPHIA

In considering the teaching of history and the classics my treatment of the subject shall be under the form of two queries:

First, Should the teacher of history have some first-hand knowledge of Greek and Latin?

My answer would be, as you may readily suppose, that it would be vastly to the advantage of the teacher of history, and more particularly, of the teacher of Greek and Roman history if he might have some training in the Greek and Latin classics. By this I do not mean, necessarily, a course of study in a college or university, however desirable that would be, but such an elementary course as a city high school affords.

With his Cæsar, Virgil, and Cicero, the teacher would have a sufficient knowledge of the languages themselves to enable him, if his tasks lead him in that direction, to read for himself the original treatises on Greek and Roman history, and better still, would give him a practical insight into ancient literature and ancient thought, such as would enable him to teach more effectively the subject matter of our text books.

To make my meaning somewhat clearer, permit me to offer an illustration. Xenophon in his narrative of the expedition of Cyrus tells the story of a certain Orontas, a Persian nobleman, in the service of Cyrus. Orontas makes preparation to desert to King Artaxerxes, but his plot is discovered. He is tried by a court martial, found guilty and condemned to die. In telling how he was led to execution, Xenophon makes one statement which I will translate as literally as possible:

"When they saw him who formerly made obeisance to him, even then they made obeisance, although they knew that he was being led to death."

How amazed was the democratic Athenian when he first came into contact with the caste feeling of the Oriental! Why should persons of inferior rank, his servants may be, continue to trouble themselves about a condemned traitor, who has no further opportunity for revenge? Xenophon could not understand it, nor do we feel it, and it well illustrates one of the common meeting points of Greek civilization and our own.

And should the teacher of history desire to draw a contrast between Greek civilization and Oriental, where could he find a better example? But he must be able to read this sentence in the original, and note the careful distinction between the imperfect and the aorist tense, before he can fully appreciate its meaning, and thereby give power and animation to his teaching. Translations are good enough for the facts, but they give no clue at all to the habit of thought that inspires the facts.

And now my second query: "Is the teacher of classics also fit to teach history?" This question persists in remaining a question in my own mind, although, ever since the utterly unexpected request was made of me that I should address you, I have given the matter a great deal of thought, without settling the question to any measurable extent. But that may be merely a habit of mind, because the more I ponder over the educational problems presented to me, the more unsettled they become.

Moreover, I question my fitness to discuss such a subject, because while I have taught the classics for some length of time, my experience in teaching history is very limited. Some years ago, it seemed desirable to give to the senior classical students in our school a further course in Greek history in addition to what they had received in the freshman year, and it fell to my lot to give the instruction. After I had heard some lessons in the usual manner from the text-book—Oman's seemed the most available at the time—I found that the students had no fair notion of the succession of events, and were not in a position to give any rational account of a period such as the Peloponnesian War. I thereupon arranged a chronological table of the leading events, and required this table to be memorized absolutely; and when we came to written tests or examinations, before expecting the students to discuss any period of

events, they were instructed to prefix a table of the dates concerned. I found that the subject matter became fixed in a more orderly fashion, and a better grasp of the whole field of Greek history was acquired.

But why should I feel that enough success attended such a method of teaching to warrant me in presenting it before you today? Well, the proof of the pudding is in the eating. A young man who was in my class about eight years ago, is now a teacher of history, and a very able and energetic one. Not long ago he told me that he still had a vivid recollection of the way in which he was required to memorize dates, and was of the opinion that it was good for him.

But how did such a habit of teaching come upon me? Perhaps it is mainly due to the way in which elementary United States history was taught to me. I still have the book—Barnes' Brief History of the United States—and it has my name, address and the date written on the fly leaf by my teacher in his best flourishing hand. Perhaps some of you may remember with what pride we took a new book to our teacher to have our name inscribed therein. It was an ungraded country school thirty years ago, before the advent of township high schools, and the teacher probably taught the book rather than the subject. On looking over the book, I find that it is full of chronological tables of all sorts, which we faithfully committed to memory, and many of them still abide there. We learned the dates of the founding of the thirteen original states, and the successive dates of the admission of the others, and what better method can there be of noting the progress of the white man in America?

We learned the succession of Presidents of our Republic, and the inclusive dates of their administrations, and I could rattle them off for you now.

I have mentioned the founding of the original states for this reason: When matters of general interest turn up in my freshman Latin class, I sometimes ask for the date of the founding of an important colony, and there is great reluctance to answer, although they had been taught United States history during the years immediately preceding and the subject should be fresh in their minds. I am afraid that it is an atmosphere rather than facts that is too often given them now.

The matter of Presidential administrations comes before me in an entirely different sphere. A number of years ago a postgraduate student of the University of Pennsylvania, who was studying history critically under Professor McMaster, admitted to me that he could not name the administrations in their order. After pondering over this faulty training, as I considered it, I adopted the method of teaching Greek history as outlined above, and some of my students of that time now come to me and fling back at me a remark that I used to make to them: "How foolish it was to be investigating the price of beans in Van Buren's administration without knowing at what period of our history Van Buren managed affairs at Washington." But you may wonder why my query is put in regard to the teacher of the classics. Because, in my opinion, the training and experience of the classical teacher fit him primarily to deal with the absolute facts, systematically stated. I refer now only to the drill work which is essential in the preparatory school curriculum in which I am engaged, and not to the study of literary achievements that forms the course in College and University, and I refer also to the teaching of history in the same school period.

The more fundamental question now arises whether the proper function of the teaching of history to such students is the telling of interesting stories on the part of the teacher, with a minimum of recitation work on the part of the student, or the determined drilling of facts and dates so deeply into the student's mind that they will remain ready for use when he comes to a wider survey of the field. The alternative is: An atmosphere or a chronology. Some may ask: "Why not both?" And I repeat, "The *perfect* teacher is born, not made."

But now we are brought face to face with a great pedagogical question. The method of teaching that I have advocated would undoubtedly require a great deal of time on the part of the student, as much, probably, as do the languages and mathematics. The hearing of interesting stories which he may forget as soon as he leaves the class room, requires no further effort from the student, and are we justified, in the multiplicity of duties, both school and social, which bear so heavily upon our children, especially in our large cities, are we justified, I say, in requiring as much unremitting study and

memory in history as are essential in the classics? Possibly the pedagogical expert who is trained in the laboratory of physiological psychology can answer this question. I confess, I can not.

So you see how unqualified I am to discuss before you the relation of the teaching of classics and history, and it is not at all clear in my mind whether my dear friend, the president of your association, in asking me to come here today, desired to hold me up as an excellent example or a terrible warning.

As you have gathered from this rambling paper, in respect of a teacher of history, I am a "has been," and in respect of a trained pedagogue, I am a "never was," and so I can only leave with you the query: "Is the teacher of the classics fit to teach history?"

TREASURER'S REPORT

1907-1908

RECEIPTS

Balance on hand, March 8, 1907	\$ 20.03
Dues paid during year	218.00
Received from sale of <i>Reports</i>	.52
	\$238.55

DISBURSEMENTS

J. H. Robinson (Balance due from Association) .	\$29.00
Printing and Stationery	37.50
Postage	27.02
Clerical help	1.00
Express	.35
	\$ 94.87
Balance on hand	\$143.68

Audited and found correct, March 14, 1908.

E. S. NOYES,
EMMA J. LONGSTRETH,
ROBERT H. WRIGHT,
Auditing Committee.

CONSTITUTION

Article I. Name and Purpose.

This Association shall be known as the "Association of History Teachers of the Middle States and Maryland." Its purpose shall be two-fold: first, to advance the study and teaching of history and

government through discussion and publication, and secondly, to promote personal acquaintance among teachers and students of history.

Article II. Membership.

Any one interested in the study or teaching of history in the Middle States and Maryland shall be eligible to membership. Application for membership shall be accepted or rejected by a vote of the Council at its meeting next following the receipt of such application.

Article III. Officers.

The officers shall be a president, a vice-president, and a secretary (who shall also act as treasurer), who, with the retiring president and four others, shall constitute a council in which shall be vested the general direction of the affairs of the Association, including the appointment of any necessary committees. The members of the Council, with the exception of the retiring president, who is *ex officio* a member shall be elected by ballot at the annual meeting.

Article IV. Meetings.

The annual meetings of the Association shall be held on the second Friday and Saturday in March, at the place annually designated by the Council.

Article V. Annual Dues.

The membership fee shall be \$1.00, payable at the time of the annual meeting.

Article VI. Amendments.

This Constitution may be amended at any regular meeting by a two-thirds vote of those present, notice of the proposed amendment having been given in the call for the meeting.

LIST OF MEMBERS

Abbe, Mrs. Robert,	City History Club,	New York City.
Ames, Herman V.,	University of Pennsylvania,	Philadelphia, Pa.
Anderson, Bingley,	The Misses Masters School,	Dobbs Ferry, N. Y.
Andrews, C. M.,	Bryn Mawr College,	Bryn Mawr, Pa.
Andrews, Elizabeth A.,	Miss Baldwin's School,	Bryn Mawr, Pa.
Arnold, Isabel S.,	Plainfield Seminary,	Plainfield, N. J.
Bailey, H. H.	85 Fifth Avenue,	New York City.
Balch, Elizabeth,	St. Agnes School,	Albany, N. Y.
Baldwin, Blanche,	High School for Girls,	Philadelphia, Pa.
Baldwin, James F.,	Vassar College,	Poughkeepsie, N. Y.
Bancroft, Mary L.,	The Bennett School,	Millbrook, N. Y.
Banks, C. W. P.,	Public School No. 31,	Borough of Bronx, New York City.
Barnard, J. Lynn,	Philadelphia School of Pedagogy,	Philadelphia, Pa.
Barrick, Willina,	234 Summit Avenue,	Jersey City, N. J.
Bass, Bertha,	120 West 123rd St.,	New York City.
Bates, A. B.,	Morris High School,	New York City.
Beard, Charles A.,	Columbia University,	New York City.
Beatman, A. S.,	Polytechnic Preparatory School,	Brooklyn, N. Y.
Belcher, Katharine F.,	Newark High School,	Newark, N. J.
Blydenburgh, J. E.,	Public School No. 102,	Brooklyn, N. Y.
Bosworth, M. A.,	17 Southard St.,	Trenton, N. J.
Brady, Teresa C.,	Public School No. 188,	New York City.
Brewer, Margaret H.,	Western District High School,	Washington, D. C.
Brewster, Alice,	Southard St.,	Trenton, N. J.
Bridgman, Anne T.,	Miss Beard's School,	Orange, N. J.
Briggs, Elizabeth,	Dr. Sachs's School,	New York City.
Brown, Marshall S.,	New York University,	New York City.
Brownell, Jane L.,	Miss Baldwin's School,	Bryn Mawr, Pa.
Brush, W. F.,	Hackley School,	Tarrytown, N. Y.
Bryan, A. C.,	High School of Commerce,	Brooklyn, N. Y.
Bryant, M. A.,	Publisher,	Philadelphia, Pa.

Burch, H. R.,	Manual Training High School,	Philadelphia, Pa.
Burr, George L.,	Cornell University,	Ithaca, N. Y.
Butler, Arthur P.,	Morristown School,	Morristown, N. J.
Butler, Eliza R.,	Horace Mann School,	New York City.
Byrnes, Clara,	Normal College,	New York City.
Campbell, Grace B.,	Private School,	New York City.
Campbell, James O.,	Westminster College,	New Wilmington, Pa.
Carhart, Elizabeth M.,	Brooklyn Heights Seminary,	Brooklyn, N. Y.
Carpenter, Leonora E.,	Eastern High School,	Baltimore, Md.
Carroll, Elizabeth M.,	Arundell School,	Baltimore, Md.
Carter, Mary C.,	St. Timothy's School,	Catonsville, Md.
Carter, Sally R.,	St. Timothy's School,	Catonsville, Md.
Cartwright, Otho G.,	Horace Mann School,	New York City.
Castle, Edward H.,		Montclair, Colo.
Chapin, Nelly P.,	St. Agatha,	New York City.
Cheyney, Edward P.,	University of Pennsylvania,	Philadelphia, Pa.
Clarke, Belle F.,	Normal School,	Philadelphia, Pa.
Cleveland, Catherine,	Girls' Latin School,	Baltimore, Md.
Coffin, Elizabeth,	3521 Hamilton St.,	Philadelphia, Pa.
Coffin, Howard A.,	Publisher,	Philadelphia, Pa.
Conant, Osmyn P.,	Publisher,	New York City.
Conner, Frances S.,	High School,	Scranton, Pa.
Coyle, M. H.,	Girls' High School,	Philadelphia, Pa.
Coyle, S. E.,	Miss Madeira's School,	Washington, D. C.
Crosswell, James G.,	Brearley School,	New York City.
Curtiss, Emeline S.,	State Normal School,	Geneseo, N. Y.
Dodd, F. F.,	Ethical Culture School,	New York City.
Dwyer, Elsie M.,	High School,	Montclair, N. J.
Dynes, Sarah A.,	State Normal School,	Trenton, N. J.
Edmonds, Franklin S.,	614 Franklin Building,	Philadelphia, Pa.
Eldredge, Lillian A.,	65 Grand View Ave.,	Plainfield, N. J.
Ellery, Eloise,	Vassar College,	Poughkeepsie, N. Y.
Englar, Margaret,	Western High School,	Baltimore, Md.
Ewing, Georgien E.,	Franklin High School,	Reisterstown, Md.
Fairchild, J. R.,	Publisher,	New York City.
Fairley, William,	High School of Commerce,	Brooklyn, N. Y.
Fanning, Grace M. W.,	Manual Training High School,	Brooklyn, N. Y.
Fay, Mary L.,	The Misses Kirk's School,	Rosemont, Pa.
Finley, John H.,	City College,	New York City.
Foote, Anna E.,	State Normal School,	Jamaica, N. Y.
Freeland, M. Frances,	State Normal School,	Trenton, N. J.

Frick, Mary G.,	557 West End Ave.,	New York City.
Gambrill, J. Montgomery,	Department of Education,	Baltimore, Md.
Garnett, James M.,	1316 Bolton St.,	Baltimore, Md.
Gaskill, Lois E.,	Polytechnic Institute,	Brooklyn, N. Y.
German, Bessie A.,	2145 Baltimore St.,	Baltimore, Md.
Gerschauck, S.,	Harlem Preparatory School,	New York City.
Gillmore, Mary B.,	Horace Mann School,	New York City.
Goertner, Mrs. R.,	Girls' Technical High	
	School,	New York City.
Goodwin, W. Grant,	Curtis High School,	New York City.
Greene, Louise K.,	9th Grade and High School,	Montclair, N. J.
Haeseler, Louise H.,	High School for Girls,	Philadelphia, Pa.
Haight, S. Carleton,	City College,	New York City.
Hall, E. R.,	Balliol School,	Utica, N. Y.
Hall, Mary A.,	Manual Training High	
	School,	Brooklyn, N. Y.
Hance, Isabel,	44 Lincoln Ave.,	Dover, N. J.
Harjes, Helen G.,		Narbeth, Pa.
Harley, L. R.,	Central High School,	Philadelphia, Pa.
Hartman, P. A.,	Western High School,	Baltimore, Md.
Hayes, Ralph L.,	Publisher,	Philadelphia, Pa.
Hedge, Louise J.,	Training School for	
	Teachers	Brooklyn, N. Y.
Hempstead, Louise,	654 Main St.,	Meadville, Pa.
Herrick, Cheesman A.,	Central High School,	Philadelphia, Pa.
Hinman, Caroline J.,	53 Wall St.,	Trenton, N. J.
Hodgdon, Frederick C.,	Publisher,	New York City.
Holbrook, Dwight,	Military Academy,	Ossining, N. Y.
House, Lolabel,	Erasmus Hall High School,	Brooklyn, N. Y.
Howland, Arthur C.,	University of Pennsylvania,	Philadelphia, Pa.
Hughes, R. O.,	312 South Walnut St.,	West Chester, Pa.
Hull, Charles H.,	Cornell University,	Ithaca, N. Y.
Hull, William I.,	Swarthmore College,	Swarthmore, Pa.
Irwin, Spencer P.,	Lincoln School,	Trenton, N. J.
Jenkins, Mary S.,	Halsted School,	Yonkers, N. Y.
Johnson, Henry,	Teachers' College,	New York City.
Kaye, P. L.,	City College,	Baltimore, Md.
Keeler, Caroline N.,	Commercial High School,	Philadelphia, Pa.
Keller, Mary V.,	212 Center St.,	Trenton, N. J.
Kelley, Mary J.,	Public School No. 1,	Paterson, N. J.
Kenny, Josephine W.,	Public School No. 184,	New York City.
Kinsley, M. H.,	Superintendent Schools,	Hoboken, N. J.
Knowlton, Daniel C.,	High School,	Montclair, N. J.
Krebs, H. C.,	Superintendent Schools,	Plainfield, N. J.

Latane, Edith,	Collegiate Institute,	York, Pa.
Lease, Frank M.,	163 New St.,	New Brunswick, N. J.
Leete, Gertrude,	Utica Free Academy,	Utica, N. Y.
Leland, Dean R.,	Peekskill Military Academy,	Peekskill, N. Y.
Lewis, Lucy,	High School for Girls,	Philadelphia, Pa.
Lingelbach, W. E.,	University of Pennsylvania,	Philadelphia, Pa.
Lockwood, L. H.,	Lockwood Collegiate	
	School for Girls,	Scarsdale, N. Y.
Longstreth, Emma J.,	Commercial High School,	Philadelphia, Pa.
Lord, Eleanor L.,	Woman's College,	Baltimore, Md.
Lowenstein, S. S.,	Public School No. 160,	New York City.
Luqueer, Frederick L.,	Public School No. 136,	Brooklyn, N. Y.
Lyttle, Eugene W.,	Regent's Office,	Albany, N. Y.
McAdam, Margaret C.,	Public School No. 129,	Brooklyn, N. Y.
McCamant, Catherine,	Blair Presbyterial Academy,	Blairstown, N. J.
Mace, William H.,	Syracuse University,	Syracuse, N. Y.
McClelland, Mary A.,	State Normal College,	Albany, N. Y.
Mackenzie, James C.,	Mackenzie School,	Dobbs Ferry, N. Y.
Mackey, Ebenezer,	Superintendent Schools,	Trenton, N. J.
Mac Mahon, Ida,	1111 Greenwood Ave.,	Trenton, N. J.
MacPherson, Ella A.,	208 Mercer St.,	Trenton, N. J.
Madeira, Lucy,	High School,	Washington, D. C.
Mallette, Metta F.,	Centennial School,	Trenton, N. J.
Marriner, Anna C.,	221 E. State St.,	Trenton, N. J.
Martin, Sarah W.,	109 Jackson Ave.,	Trenton, N. J.
Massinger, Elizabeth W.,	Girls' High School,	Philadelphia, Pa.
Maurer, R. A.,	915 Rhode Island Ave.,	Washington, D. C.
Mulliner, Clara L.,	High School,	Camden, N. J.
Murray, Lucy E.,	Western High School,	Baltimore, Md.
Muzzey, D. S.,	Ethical Culture School,	New York City.
Myrick, Harriet C.,		Clinton, N. Y.
Newman, Lillian	State Model School,	Trenton, N. J.
Newton, C. B.,	Lawrenceville Academy,	Lawrenceville, N. J.
North, Mary,	High School,	Montclair, N. J.
North, Samuel M.,	Polytechnic Institute,	Baltimore, Md.
Northwood Bertha,	227 Tyler St.,	Trenton, N. J.
Noyes, E. S.,	Central High School,	Washington, D. C.
Nugent, William D.,	Publisher,	Philadelphia, Pa.
Nusbaum, Louis,	Horace Binney School,	Philadelphia, Pa.
Odell Allen G.,	225 Fourth Ave.,	New York City.
Osgood, Ellen L.,	High School,	Bayonne, N. J.
Otis, Isaac L.,	1937 Lexington St.,	Baltimore, Md.
Paine, Frederick H.,	Eastern Dist. High School,	Brooklyn, N. Y.
Parmenter, Eleanor,	State Normal School,	Trenton, N. J.

Pearson, Henry C., Pendleton, Venita, Price, Blanche D.,	Horace Mann School, Commercial High School for Girls, Manual Training High School, Fordham College, Rand Collegiate School, 141 Grove St.,	New York City. Bryn Athyn, Pa. Philadelphia, Pa. Brooklyn, N. Y. Fordham, New York City. Trenton, N. J. Plainfield, N. J. Lambertville, N. J.
Puig, Louise M.,		Baltimore, Md.
Quirk, John F.,	Polytechnic Institute, Central High School, Public School No. 55, State Normal School, State Normal School, Union College, Central High School, Columbia University, Director of High Schools, Teachers' College, Vassar College, High School for Girls, State Normal School, Franklin School, St. Agatha School, High School of Commerce, Columbia University, Cornell University, Bryn Mawr College, Jarvis Place, Superintendent Schools, Superintendent Schools, S. W. corner Broad & Green Sts.,	Philadelphia, Pa. Baltimore, Md. Baltimore, Md. Baltimore, Md. Schenectady, N. Y. Washington, D. C. New York City. Pittsburg, Pa. New York City. Poughkeepsie, N. Y. Philadelphia, Pa. Oswego, N. Y. Trenton, N. J. New York City. New York City. Ithaca, N. Y. Bryn Mawr, Pa. Trenton, N. J. Montclair, N. J. Minersville, Pa.
Rand, Edwin W.,		Philadelphia, Pa.
Reed, Ethel F.,		Brooklyn, N. Y.
Reilly, Susan A.,		Fordham, New York City.
Reisler, Edward,		Trenton, N. J.
Renninger, W.,		Plainfield, N. J.
Richmond, Martha J. S.,		Lambertville, N. J.
Richmond, Sarah E.,		Baltimore, Md.
Ricker, Ella V.,		Baltimore, Md.
Ripton, B. H.,		Baltimore, Md.
Robinette, Rosalie		Schenectady, N. Y.
Robinson, James H.,		Washington, D. C.
Rynearson, Edward,		New York City.
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Salmon, Lucy M.,		New York City.
Saurwalt Alma V.,		Poughkeepsie, N. Y.
Scales, C. L. G.,		Philadelphia, Pa.
Schermerhorn, Ella,		Oswego, N. Y.
Sebring, Emma G.,		Trenton, N. J.
Sheppard, James J.,		New York City.
Shotwell, J. T.,		New York City.
Sill, H. A.		New York City.
Smith, William R.,		Ithaca, N. Y.
Snyder, Arrietta,		Bryn Mawr, Pa.
Spaulding, Randall,		Trenton, N. J.
Spayd, Henry H.,		Montclair, N. J.
Spencer, A. L.,		Minersville, Pa.
		Philadelphia, Pa.
Stedman, W. P.,	Baltimore Polytechnic Institute, Baldwin School, Central High School, Brooklyn Heights Seminary, Whittier Hall,	Baltimore, Md. Bryn Mawr, Pa. Philadelphia, Pa. Brooklyn, N. Y. New York City.
Steele, Esther C. M.,		Helmetta, N. J.
Steele, G. R.,		Philadelphia, Pa.
Stevens, Ellen Y.		Brooklyn, N. Y.
Stevens, Romiett,		New York City.
Straub, Lizzie F.,		Helmetta, N. J.
Stryker, Florence E.,	4520 Kingsessing Ave., Boys' High School, Peddie Institute,	Philadelphia, Pa. Brooklyn, N. Y. Hightstown, N. J.
Sullivan, James,		
Swetland, Roger W.,		

Tall, Lida L.,	Teachers' Training School,	Baltimore, Md.
Taylor, Jane I.,	Wadleigh High School,	New York City.
Temple, Henry,	Washington and Jefferson	
	College,	Washington, Pa.
Terry, Eva,	High School,	Somerville, N. J.
Thomas, Allen C.,	Haverford College,	Haverford, Pa.
Thompson, Annie S.,	Morris High School,	New York City.
Thompson, Holland,	College City of New York,	New York City.
Tiffany, O. E.,	Western Maryland College,	Westminster, Md.
Tolson, William H.,	Principal,	Baltimore, Md.
Tracy, Charles A.,	Military Institute,	Bordentown, N. J.
Umsted, Mary G.,	Commercial High School	
	for Girls,	Philadelphia, Pa.
Van Dyke, Paul,	Princeton University,	Princeton, N. J.
Van Sickle, J. H.,	Superintendent Schools,	Baltimore, Md.
Very, Edith,	Brearley School,	New York City.
Vincent, John M.,	Johns Hopkins University,	Baltimore, Md.
Walker, Barbour Mrs.,	434 Central Park West,	New York City.
Warren, Constance,	St. Timothy's School,	Catonsville, Md.
Weglein, David E.,	Western High School,	Baltimore, Md.
Welch, Fannie F.,	High School,	Passaic, New Jersey.
White, Thomas M.,	122 Center St.,	Trenton, N. J.
Whitney, Cornelia,	Normal School,	Washington, D. C.
Williams, Florence,	High School	Chester, Pa.
Willis, Henry,	Central High School,	Philadelphia, Pa.
Wood, Elizabeth C.,	Wadleigh High School,	New York City.
Woodman, Anna S.,	Kent Place,	Summit, N. J.
Wright, R. H.,	Eastern High School,	Baltimore, Md.
Yarrington, Adrian M.,	Manual Training High	
	School,	Brooklyn, N. Y.

